

Statistical Account Of India

1870

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been introduced and sedulously fostered, but the results hitherto attained have not been encouraging. The area under the principal crops in 1871-72 was as follows :—Wheat, 309,846 acres ; gram, 14,508 ; barley, 56,233 ; oil-seeds, 59,904 ; *joár*, 57,436 ; *bájra*, 177,913 ; cotton, 26,873 ; *moth*, 44,787 ; *múng*, 19,826. As almost every field in the District is more or less on an incline, the rain-water rapidly drains away, without benefiting the soil ; and it has been necessary in most cases to retard its escape by a rude system of terraces, embanked at their lower extremity. A more ambitious work, requiring the co-operation of villages and expenditure of capital, is the embankment of ravines, which is practised to some extent both here and in the neighbouring District of Jhelum. Irrigation by any other mode is little employed. The best lands are sown for three consecutive harvests with wheat and *bájra* alternately, and lie fallow for the fourth ; inferior soils bear two crops in the same year, and then recruit during the following twelve months. Rotation of crops in any higher form is unknown. The average produce per acre is given in the Government returns for 1871-72 as follows :—Rice, 732 lbs. ; cotton, 168 lbs. ; wheat, 516 lbs. ; inferior grains, 315 lbs. ; oil-seeds, 342 lbs. The peasantry are in comfortable circumstances ; their houses are neatly furnished and scrupulously clean, and they are rapidly extricating themselves from the clutches of the village money-lender. Under Sikh rule, it is calculated that 50 per cent. of the cultivators were in debt ; at present, only 10 per cent. are believed to be so involved. The tenures of the District are very varied, from the ancestral *zamíndári*, or common undivided holding with division of profits, to the modern occupancy right of tenants who can show twelve years of uninterrupted cultivation. Rents vary according to the nature of the soil and the caste of the tenant. They are sometimes paid in grain, by fractions of the produce. Where cash rates prevail, they rule as follows :—Rice lands, from 6s. to 14s. per acre ; wheat lands, from 3s. to 6s. ; oil-seed lands, from 2s. to 6s. Wages have increased from 50 to 75 per cent. since the Sikh rule. In towns they are paid in cash ; but the agricultural labourer generally receives his wages in kind. Prices were returned as follows in January 1871 :—Wheat, 16 *seers* per rupee, or 7s. per cwt. ; *joár*, 32 *seers* per rupee, or 3s. 6d. per cwt. ; *bájra*, 26 *seers* per rupee, or 4s. 3½d. per cwt. These rates are considerably higher than those which ruled up to 1867.

Natural Calamities.—In 1843-44, during the Sikh supremacy, Rawal Pindi was devastated by an incursion of locusts, which overran the whole country in enormous swarms, and for a while almost succeeded in depopulating the District. They appeared just in time to devour the whole autumn crop of 1843 ; they remained for the succeeding spring crops ; and at last they took their departure after utterly destroying the autumn harvest of 1844. Rá

remote effects of this terrible visitation. The Sikh authorities insisted upon realizing the utmost farthing of their revenue from the starving cultivators, who were obliged to have recourse to the trading classes; and so commenced a system of chronic indebtedness, which has not even yet entirely passed away. The tenures of land were completely revolutionized, to the great disadvantage of the proprietary class, as the Sikhs admitted tenants to share the burdens and privileges of the land-owners, in order the more readily to collect their exorbitant imposts. The British courts are still flooded with litigation, arising from the disorganization of this unhappy period.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—So rugged a District as Ráwal Pindi has naturally but little commerce, and that little is concentrated at the headquarters town and at Házro. The imports comprise sugar, spices, cotton goods (European and native), and salt. The exports are confined to the raw materials of agriculture. The only manufacture of importance is that of cotton-weaving, which employed 13,078 looms in 1871-72; the annual out-turn is valued at 7 *lákhs* of rupees, or £70,000. The wealth resulting from long and settled peace finds its way into the hands of the cultivating classes, and is chiefly hoarded in the form of jewellery. A great horse-fair is held annually at Ráwal Pindi, at which Government prizes are distributed, and animals from all parts of the Punjab are exhibited and sold. The Grand Trunk Road is the principal means of communication, having just 100 miles of metalled line within the District. There are 28 miles of other metalled highway, and 1133 miles of unmetalled roads in Ráwal Pindi. The Indus is navigable here throughout its whole course by native craft, and becomes practicable for steamers below Mokhad. Two telegraph lines traverse the District, namely, the main wire from Lahore to Pesháwar, and a branch from Ráwal Pindi to the summer station at Murree (Marri). The Punjab Northern State Railway will also run through the whole length of the District.

Administration.—The ordinary administrative staff of this extensive District comprises a Deputy Commissioner, 3 Assistant and 2 extra-Assistant Commissioners, 1 Cantonment Magistrate, and 7 *tahsildárs*, besides the ordinary medical and constabulary officers. There are military establishments at Ráwal Pindi, Murree (Marri), Attock, and Campbellpur. The total revenue in 1872-73 amounted to £89,226, of which sum £68,659, or more than three-fourths of the whole, was due to the land tax. The other principal items were stamps, local rates, excise, and opium. In the same year the District contained 15 first-class and 7 second-class police stations, and the regular police numbered 801 men of all ranks, being 1 constable to every 887 inhabitants and to every 775 square miles. The total number of persons brought to trial in 1871, for all offences great or small, was 7911, or 1 in every 89 inhabitants.

Crimes of violence are still unhappily common ; human life is lightly regarded by the wild tribes of the western gorges, and the ancestral blood-feuds are only lulled for a while by the severity of English law. Murders prompted by conjugal jealousies are also of frequent occurrence. There is a Divisional jail at Ráwal Pindi, the total number of prisoners in which was 2148 in 1872 ; but some of these were offenders from neighbouring Districts. The average daily strength was 1009. Education is making satisfactory progress. The total number of pupils on the rolls in 1873 was 10,382, and the expenditure from public funds amounted to £4329. Female education, especially, has made rapid strides of late years, through the benevolent exertions of Bedi Khem Sinh, a native gentleman of Kallár, who has established 32 girls' schools in this District, besides others in Jhelum (Jhílam) ; they are chiefly attended by Hindu children, though there is also a fair sprinkling of Muhammadans. The Lawrence Memorial Asylum at Murree (Marri) is devoted to the education of the children of European soldiers, and enjoys an income amounting in 1873 to £3447. There is also a school for the benefit of residents at Murree (Marri) in the hot season, which is transferred to Ráwal Pindi during the winter. The normal school for training teachers at the last-named town had 39 students in 1873. The District is subdivided into 7 *tahsils*, and 38 *ilákas*. There are municipalities at Ráwal Pindi, Murree (Marri), Attock, and Házro ; but a municipal income is also realized at seven other towns or villages. The total revenue of these 11 places during the year 1871-72 amounted to £8642, being at the rate of 2s. 6½d. per head of their population.

Sanitary Aspects.—Ráwal Pindi has two rainy seasons, the first from January to March, and the second from July to August. During the winter, the weather is cold and even severe, but in summer the heat cannot be exceeded in any part of India. The climate of the Murree (Marri) Hills is said to be peculiarly adapted to the English constitution. The mean temperature in the shade at Ráwal Pindi in 1871-72 is recorded as follows :—May, 86·5° F. ; July, 89·5° ; December, 54·5°. The maximum heat was 118·2°, and the minimum 28·5°. The total rainfall was 16·2 inches in 1867-68 ; 38·2 inches in 1868-69 ; 16·5 inches in 1869-70 ; 36·2 inches in 1870-71 ; and 32·8 inches in 1871-72. The principal disease of the District is fever, which exists in an endemic form. The total number of reported deaths from all causes was 18,192 in 1870 ; 16,104 in 1871 ; and 12,453 in 1872 ; or 26, 23, and 18 per thousand respectively. Of these deaths, as many as 14,758, 10,889, and 8221, or 21, 15, and 11 per thousand respectively, were assigned to fever alone. Cattle diseases are very prevalent, and carry off a large number of the live-stock.

Ráwal Pindi.—*Tahsil* of Ráwal Pindi District Punjab, lying along the foot of the Murree (Marri) Hills.

Ráwal Pindi.—Municipal city and administrative headquarters of Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab. Lat. $33^{\circ} 37' \text{ N.}$, long. $73^{\circ} 6' \text{ E.}$; pop. (1868), 19,228, consisting of 6490 Hindus, 10,218 Muhammadáns, 2197 Sikhs, 44 Christians, and 279 'others.' The present town is of quite modern origin, but General Cunningham has identified certain ruins on the site of the cantonments with the ancient city of Gajipur, the capital of the Bhatti tribe in the ages preceding the Christian era. Greek and other early coins, as well as broken bricks, occur over an area of 2 square miles. Known within historical times as Fatehpur Baori, it fell into decay during one of the Mughal invasions in the 14th century. Jhanda Khán, a Ghakkar chief, restored the town, and gave it the present name of Ráwal Pindi. Sardár Milka Sinh, a SÍkh adventurer, occupied it in 1765, and invited traders from the neighbouring commercial centres of Jhelum and Sháhpur to settle in his territory. Thenceforward Ráwal Pindi grew rapidly, and, on the introduction of British rule, became the site of an important cantonment. The modern town is well built, and has an air of considerable prosperity, with broad and handsome streets, and many brick houses. The inhabitants consist of Ghakkars, Bhattis, Awáns, Kashmírís, Kshattriyas, and Bráhmans, the last two castes having a monopoly of trade. Court-houses, treasury, jail, police office, dispensary, 2 *sardáis*, *tahsílí*, and numerous other public buildings. Government normal school, Presbyterian mission; *dák* bungalow; 2 European hotels; head office of Punjab Bank. Considerable trade with Amritsar and Pind Dádan Khán. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £5129, or 4s. 11½d. per head of population (20,768) within municipal limits.

Ráwal Pindi.—Cantonments in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab, lying to the south of the native town, from which they are separated by the little river Leh. Occupy a space of 3 miles in length by 2 in breadth, and contained in 1868 a population of 6581, including the English and Native troops. The barracks are capable of accommodating about 2500 European soldiers. The garrison usually consists of 2 European and 2 Native infantry corps, a regiment of Native cavalry, and 2 batteries of artillery. The cantonments contain several European shops, and occupy the site of an ancient Hindu city, whose ruins may still be detected in many places. Lat. $33^{\circ} 36' 20'' \text{ N.}$, long. $73^{\circ} 5' 40'' \text{ E.}$

Ráya.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Siálkot District, Punjab, extending along the bank of the river Rávi. Area, 493 square miles; pop. (1868), 199,748; persons per square mile, 405; number of villages, 467.

Ráyadrug.—Town in Bellary District.—See RAIDRUG.

Ráyagudda (or *Rájágudda*).—Kandh village in Jáipur *samindári*, Vizagapatam District, Madras. Lat. $19^{\circ} 9' 40'' \text{ N.}$, long. $83^{\circ} 27' 30'' \text{ E.}$; 33 miles north-west of Párvatipur. Formerly residence of the Jáipur Rájá. Sub-magistrate's station, with thriving trade.

Ráyak.—Village in the Garo Hills District, on the Sameswari river ; with a considerable population engaged in fishing. In the neighbourhood is a large cave in the limestone formation. The entrance is about 20 feet high, and the total length about 100 feet, terminating in a spacious, dome-shaped chamber. A small stream trickles through the cavern, and the whole place is filled with swarms of bats.

Ráyakottai.—Village in Krishnagiri *táluk*, Salem District, Madras. Lat. $12^{\circ} 31' N.$, long. $78^{\circ} 5' E.$; pop. (1871), 1881, residing in 376 houses. One of the Báramahál fortresses, until recently occupied by troops. It commanded one of the most important passes, and its capture by Major Gowdie in 1791 was the first exploit in Lord Cornwallis' great march. The fort was ceded to the English by the treaty of 1792 ; and it was under its walls that the army of General Harris encamped in 1799, before entering Mysore territory on the way to Seringapatam. The remains of the fort on the Durgam (2449 feet above sea level) still exist, as does also the European cemetery.

Ráyan.—Town in Jodhpur State, Rájputána. Lat. $26^{\circ} 32' N.$, long. $74^{\circ} 17' E.$; 27 miles north-west of the city of Jodhpur. Thornton mentions a fort here, situated on a rock about 200 feet above the plain, and commanding the whole town. Estimated population, according to Boileau, 5650.

Ráyapetta (*Royapet*).—Suburb of the city of MADRAS.

Ráyavalasa.—Pass in Vizagapatam District, Madras. Lat. $18^{\circ} 15' N.$, long. $83^{\circ} 7' E.$; leading from Kásipur or Kásimkota to Jáipur by the abandoned sanatorium of Gallikonda. Crest of the pass, 2850 feet above the sea. The Maharájá of Vizianágaram has a coffee estate here.

Raygad.—Town in Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay.—*See* RAIGARH.

Re.—A river of British Burma ; rising near the Attaran, at the head of the valley formed by the Toung-gnyo and Ma-hlwai Hills. It falls into the sea in lat. $15^{\circ} 5' N.$, in the extreme south of Amherst District, Tenasserim Division. This stream is only navigable within the influence of the tide. Its mouth being exposed to the ocean affords no shelter, and is difficult of approach, owing to numerous rocks and reefs distant about 4 miles from the shore.

Redi.—Port in the Málwan Subdivision of Ratnágiri District, Bombay ; situated in lat. $15^{\circ} 45' 15'' N.$, and long. $73^{\circ} 42' 30'' E.$, 7 miles south of Vingorla, and 89 miles south by east of Ratnágiri town. Average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1873-74, £2570—viz. imports, £993, and exports, £1577.

Re-gyaw.—Revenue circle in the Ut-hpo township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma ; situated on the right bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy). Pop. (1876-77), 3583 ; gross revenue, £621.

Re-gyi.—Revenue circle in Toung-ngú District, Tenasserim Division,

British Burma. In the north-west, the country is undulating and covered with *eng* forest; towards the south, there is some rice cultivation. Pop. (1876-77), 2158; revenue, £306.

Re-gyi.—Two adjoining revenue circles in the township of the same name in Bassein District, Pègu Division, British Burma. Area, 17 square miles, consisting of a rice plain broken by swampy patches and open forest. Chief town, RE-GYI PAN-DAW. Pop. (1876-77), 7752; gross revenue, £2434.

Re-gyi.—A creek in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. It falls into the Nga-won or Bassein river, close to Nga-thaing-khyoung, and in the rains extends eastwards and joins the Da-ga near Kyún-paw. At this season it is about 15 feet deep, and navigable throughout by large boats.

Re-gyi Pan-daw (*Pandan Yaygyi*).—Town and headquarters of the Re-gyi township, Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated in lat. $17^{\circ} 19' 50''$ N., and long. $95^{\circ} 10' 20''$ E., on the Re-gyi creek. Connected with Nga-thaing-khyoung by a good cart-road.

Rehlí.—The southern *tahsíl* or revenue Subdivision of Ságár (Saugor) District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 154,476, residing in 582 villages or townships and 31,025 houses, on an area of 1301 square miles. Lat. $23^{\circ} 32'$ to $24^{\circ} 1' N.$; long. $78^{\circ} 12'$ to $79^{\circ} 8' E.$

Rehlí.—Town in Ságár (Saugor) District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. $23^{\circ} 38' N.$, and long. $79^{\circ} 5' E.$, 28 miles south-east of Ságár, in a healthy and fertile country, 1350 feet above sea level. Pop. (1872), 4406, chiefly Bráhmans and Gonds. Chief manufacture, *gúr* or coarse sugar; which, with wheat, is largely exported. Markets are held twice a week, and skilled labour is readily procurable. The early Gond rulers were succeeded by a race of shepherds called Baladeo, who first settled at Khamária, a mile off, but afterwards removed to Rehlí, where they built a fort. The place next passed to the Bundelá chief of Panna, Rájá Chhatar Sál, who granted it with other territory to Báji Ráo Peshwá, in return for his assistance against Muhammad Khán Bangash, the Governor of Farrukhábád. The present fort was built by the Peshwá. It stands opposite the junction of the Sunár and Dehár rivers, on a height commanding the town, and encloses nearly 2 acres, which was once covered by Marhattá buildings. In 1817, Rehlí, with Ságár, was ceded to the British. Rehlí has a handsome school-house, attended by 180 boys; 5 female schools, attended by 125 girls; dispensary, and post office.

Re-hpyú.—Revenue circle in the Thayet township of Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 20 square miles; pop. (1876-77), 2591; revenue, £334. Products—rice, sesamum, and plantains.

Re-keng.—Revenue circle in the Meng-gyi township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 15,770; gross revenue, £3633.

Re-keng.—Chief town of the above circle, and headquarters of an Assistant Commissioner; situated on the east bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy). Contains a market, police station, and dispensary. Pop. (1877), 2997; revenue, £271.

Re-la-maing.—Township in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; extends along the coast, which is fringed with rocks and small islets. It is watered chiefly by the RE RIVER, the valley of which is very fertile. The township comprises 8 revenue circles; pop. (1876-77), 11,788; land revenue, £1996, and capitation tax, £1317.

Remuná.—Village in Balasor District, Bengal. Lat. $21^{\circ} 33' N.$, long. $86^{\circ} 59' E.$; 5 miles west of Balasor town. Celebrated for a religious fair held annually in February in honour of Kshirichorá Gopináth, a form of Krishna; it lasts about 13 days, and is attended by from 10,000 to 12,000 persons. About £600 worth of goods are sold, consisting chiefly of toys, sweetmeats, fruits, vegetables, country cloth, etc. The temple of the god is an unsightly stone edifice defaced by indecent sculptures. It is much frequented during the months of February, April, and November.

Rengan.—One of the petty States in Rewa Kántha, Bombay. Area, $\frac{3}{4}$ square mile. There are 8 chiefs. Estimated revenue (1875), £50; tribute of £46 is paid to the Gáckwár of Baroda.

Reng-e.—Revenue circle in the Za-lwon township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 4126; gross revenue, £1660.

Reng-gnyiem.—Revenue circle in the Martaban township of Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2245; capitation tax, £332, and land revenue, £1821.

Rengmá.—Mountain range in the Nágá Hills, Assam, lying between the Jamuna and Kaliáni rivers. Lat. $26^{\circ} 15'$ to $26^{\circ} 30' N.$, and long. $93^{\circ} 24'$ to $93^{\circ} 40' E.$; height, between 2000 and 3000 feet above sea level. The slopes are steep, and clothed with dense jungle and under-wood. The Rengmá Nágás, by whom this tract is inhabited, are by far the least savage of all the Nágá tribes, being scarcely distinguishable from the Mikirs, who occupy the tract to the north.

Rengtipahár.—Mountain range in the south of Cáchár District, Assam; running northwards from the Lushái Hills, and forming the watershed between the Sonái and Dháleswari rivers.

Reng-ún.—Revenue circle in Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 6499; revenue, £520. Products—rice, betel-nut, and sesamum.

Re-tho.—Revenue circle in the Hpoung-leng township of Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Almost entirely under rice cultivation. Pop. (1876-77), 8359; gross revenue, £4326.

Re-tsu-daing.—Tidal creek in Thún-khwa District, Pegu Division,

British Burma. After its junction with the *Pi-pa-lwot*, it is called the *Pai-mwot*, and a little lower down it receives the waters of the *Kywon-pya-that* (more correctly the *Kywon-bhúra-thad*), and thenceforward assumes the name of that river. In about lat. 17° N., it sends off to the southward a large branch, which, as the *To* or *China Bakir*, reaches the sea 20 miles west-south-west of the *Hlaing* or *Rangoon* river.

Revelganj.—Town in *Sáran* District, Bengal.—*See* GODNA.

Rewadanda.—Town and port in the *Alfbágh* Subdivision of *Kolába* District, Bombay; situated 6 miles south by east of *Alfbágh*, in lat. $18^{\circ} 32' 50''$ N., and long. $72^{\circ} 58'$ E. Pop. (1872), 5910. Average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1873-74, £24,405 of imports, and £40,946 of exports. Post office.

Rewah.—The principal Native State in *Bághelkhand*, under the political superintendence of the *Bághelkhand* and *Central India* Agencies, lying between $22^{\circ} 39'$ and $25^{\circ} 12'$ N. lat., and between $80^{\circ} 46'$ and $82^{\circ} 51'$ E. long. Estimated area, 13,000 square miles; estimated pop. 2,035,000. Bounded on the north by the British Districts of *Banda*, *Allahábád*, and *Mírzápur*, in the North-Western Provinces; on the east by part of *Mírzápur* District and by Native States in *Chutiá Nágpur*; on the south by the British Districts of *Chhatisgarh*, *Mandla*, and *Jubbulpore* (*Jabalpur*), in the Central Provinces; and on the west by *Maihar*, *Nagode*, *Soháwal*, and *Kothi*, Native States in *Bághelkhand*.

'The western and north-western portions of the State are occupied by mountains, rising in three successive plateaux, or vast terraces, from the valley of the *Ganges*. Of these, the one lying to the north-east, and styled by *Franklin* the '*Bindháchal*,' or *First Range*, is the lowest, having an average elevation of only 500 feet above the sea; it is formed of horizontal strata of sandstone, the upper surface presenting an expanse of very great sterility. Little of this plateau, however, is included within the limits of *Rewah*, the boundary of which on this side coincides nearly with the base of the second range, or *Panna Hills*. The elevation of these mountains is from 900 to 1200 feet above the sea. They consist of sandstone intermixed with schist and quartz, and, to the west, overlaid with limestone. Above this plateau, nearly parallel to the brow, but more to the south-east, rises the *Káimur* range. The *Tons* (south-eastern) and its tributaries, which drain the second plateau, descend to the lower levels in cascades, varying in height from that of *Bilohi* with 400 feet to that of *Chachái* with 200. About a third of the country lying south-east of the *Káimur Hills* constitutes part of the basin of the *Són*, a tract as yet almost unexplored. That great river, rising in the extreme south of *Rewah*, flows through the State in a north and north-easterly direction, crossing the north-eastern frontier into the District of *Mírzápur*. Its principal tributary is the *Mahánadi*, joining it on the left side, in lat. $24^{\circ} 5'$ N., and long. $81^{\circ} 6'$ E. The

Tons, running north-east from Maihar, first touches the State in lat. $24^{\circ} 25' N.$, and long. $80^{\circ} 55' E.$, and draining the highlands, receives the Beher, the Biland, and several minor torrents. It holds a course generally north-easterly, and passes in lat. $25^{\circ} 1' N.$, and long. $81^{\circ} 51' E.$, into the British District of Allahábád, its length in Rewah being 80 miles. None of the rivers is navigable.—*Condensed from Thornton.*

The State is rich in minerals and forest produce. The prevailing classes of soil are *mair*, *sengawan*, *domat*, and *bhata*. *Mair* is a black soil, which retains water and moisture well, and needs no irrigation. It produces valuable crops of wheat and other grain. *Sengawan* is a whitish clay, suitable for crops of any kind. *Domat* (literally two soils) is *mair* and *sengawan* mixed, and it produces the crops of both varieties. *Bhata*, red dry soil, is the worst class, producing only inferior crops. Tanks are, as a rule, seldom constructed for irrigation. Owing to the want of embankments, many miles of undulating and cultivable land lie untilled.

According to the family history kept in the Court Records, it appears that the original founder of this principality was Bilagar Deo or Biág Deo (hence the name Bághel), who, leaving his own country in Guzerat in 580 A.D., ostensibly on a religious pilgrimage, but in reality to seize whatever undefended territory he could, first made himself master of the fort of Murpha, and eventually of most of the country from Kálpi to Chandalgah, and married the daughter of the Rájá of Pirhawán. Bilagar Deo was succeeded by his son, Kurun Deo, in 615, who added to his possessions a large portion of what at present constitutes Rewah, and called it Bághelkhand. He married the daughter of the Rájá of Mandla, and obtained in dower the famous fort of Bandogarh, to which he removed his court. The chiefship descended from father to son for many generations, with varying fortunes. In the time of Birbhan Ráo, the 19th Rájá, who succeeded in 1601, the family of Humáyun Sháh, Emperor of Delhi, being forced by Sher Sháh to flee from Delhi, found shelter in Rewah territory. In 1618, Vikramáditya succeeded and made Rewah his capital, building the fort and town. Abdút Sinh, the 27th Rájá, was only six months old when his father died; and Hardí Sah, the Bundelá chief of Panna, taking advantage of his infancy, invaded Rewah, and took possession of the capital. The young chief and his mother fled to Partábgarh, and after a time, with the assistance of the Emperor of Delhi, expelled Hardí Sah. Abdút Sinh was succeeded by Ajít Sinh, and he in turn by Jái Sinh Deo, in 1809. It was during his rule that British influence was established in Bághelkhand, and the first formal treaty between the British Government and Rewah was made with Jái Sinh Deo in 1812. In that year, a body of Pindári marauders invaded Mírzápúr through Rewah State. The Rájá, who was believed to have abetted this enter-

prised, was required to accede to a treaty by which he was acknowledged as ruler of his dominions, and was brought under the protection of the British Government, to whose arbitration he bound himself to refer all disputes with neighbouring chiefs, and engaged to allow British troops to march through, or be stationed in, his territories. The Rájá, however, failed to fulfil his obligations; and when a military post was established in his territory, he attempted to starve out the detachment. Troops were sent to enforce the execution of the engagements, and in June 1813 a second treaty was made confirming the first, and defining more clearly the relations of the Rájá with the British Government. Jái Sinh Deo abdicated in favour of his son, Bishnáth Sinh, who was succeeded in 1834 by his son, Raghuráj Sinh, the present Mahárájá, who was born in 1824. The ruling family are Bághel Rájputs. In 1847, the Mahárájá abolished *satí* throughout his dominions. For his services during the Mutiny of 1857, the tracts of Sohágpur and Amarkantak were conferred in sovereignty on Raghuráj Sinh, who has also received the distinction of Knight Grand Commander of the Star of India. He holds a *sanad* of adoption, and is allowed a personal salute of 19 guns.

The population of Rewah was estimated in 1875 at 2,035,000 souls. The principal landholders are Bráhmans, Thákurs, Kurmis, and Gonds, and the two latter are generally both proprietors and cultivators. Rent is generally paid in kind, and varies from one-sixth to one-tenth of the gross produce. The revenue of the State was estimated in 1875 at 25 *lákhs* of rupees (say £250,000), of which at least one-half is alienated in *jágírs* and other grants; but the actual income which reached the State treasury in that year was found to be only Rs. 720,159 (say £72,015). The chief maintains a force of 900 cavalry, 12,600 infantry, 6 field and 50 other guns, and 100 artillerymen.

The average annual rainfall at Rewah for the three years ending 1875-76 was 59 inches.

Rewah.—Chief town of the State of the same name in Bághelkhand, Central India. Lat. $24^{\circ} 31' 30''$ N., long. $81^{\circ} 20'$ E.; 131 miles south-west of Allahábád, and 182 north-east of Sagar. Thornton states that the town is surrounded by 3 ramparts, of which the innermost encloses the palace of the Rájá. Pop. (according to Jacquemont), 7000.

Rewa Kántha.—Political Agency in Bombay; comprising 56 petty States, the most important of which are referred to under their respective headings. Estimated total area, 4793 square miles; pop. (1872), 505,732.

Rewári.—Western *tahsil* of Gurgáon District, Punjab; consisting of an outlying hilly tract, almost separated from the remainder of the District by native territory. The soil is naturally sandy; but the

industry of the Ahir inhabitants, and the copious well-irrigation, have turned it into a singularly prosperous and fruitful country. Numerous streams flow through it from the Jáipur Hills.

Rewári.—Municipal town in Gurgáon District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Lat. $28^{\circ} 12' N.$, long. $70^{\circ} 40' E.$; pop. (1868), 24,503. Rewári is situated on the Delhi and Jáipur (Jeypore) road, 34 miles south-east of Gurgáon town. Ancient town, owing its present commercial importance to British rule. The débris of an earlier city covers a site known as Budhi Rewári, east of the modern walls. Local tradition attributes its foundation to Rájá Karm Pál, of unknown date. Even the present town has considerable antiquity, having been founded about 1000 A.D. by Rájá Ráwath. The native Rájás seem to have maintained a partial independence under the Mughal Empire, renting their *parganá* at a fixed revenue. They also built the fort of Gokalgarh, near the town, now in ruins, but exhibiting marks of great strength. They coined their own money, one of the most cherished prerogatives of independent sovereignty in India, and their currency bore the name of Gokal Sikka. On the collapse of the Mughal Empire, Rewári fell first to the Marhattás and afterwards to the Ját Rájás of Bhartpur, who retained it till the cession of the Delhi territory in 1803. In 1805, the *parganá* was brought under direct British rule, and the town became for some time the headquarters of a District. A military cantonment was established near the civil station. The security of British rule attracted large numbers of traders from the neighbouring Native States, for which Rewári now forms a central emporium. Imports of iron from Ulwur (Alwar), employed in the manufactures of the town, and exported to Bhawáni, to the Punjab generally, and to the North-Western Provinces; of *ghi*, oil, ginger, and cloth from Bhawáni; of molasses, rice, and sugar from the south for exportation to Ulwur; and of salt from the Sámbar Lake, which, with iron, forms the chief return trade to the North-Western Provinces. Manufacture of hardware, made of mixed metal, and valued at £20,000 per annum. Handsome town hall; new city gates; Government offices; police station; school-house; dispensary. The surplus revenues of the municipality are devoted to improving and embellishing the town. Municipal income in 1875-76, £2903, or 2s. 3½d. per head of population (25,237) within municipal limits. The fort of Gokalgarh, in the vicinity of the town, was built by the native Rájás during Mughal times. Though now in ruins, it was of considerable strength.

Rewás.—Port in the Albágh Subdivision of Kolába District, Bombay. Lat. $18^{\circ} 47' 20'' N.$, long. $72^{\circ} 58' 30'' E.$; 10 miles north-east of Albágh. Average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1873-74, £8946—viz. imports, £1365, and exports, £7581.

Riah.—*Tahsíl* in Siálkot District, Punjab.—See RAYA.

Rian.—Town in Jodhpur State, Rájputána.—*See* RAYAN.

Riási.—Fort and town in Kashmír State, Punjab. Lat. $33^{\circ} 5' N.$, long. $74^{\circ} 52' E.$; lies on the left bank of the Chenáb (Chináb), on the last slopes of the southernmost Himálayan range. Thornton states that the fort crowns a conical rock, south of the town, and consists of a rectangular enclosure, whose lofty stone walls rose sheer from the steeply escarped sides of the hills, with a bomb-proof tower at each angle. Two large tanks supply the garrison with water. A deep ravine separates the fort from a sandstone eminence of equal height, about a mile distant.

Ridhpur.—Town in Ellichpur District, Berar.—*See* RITPUR.

Rikheswar.—Cantonment in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces. *See* LOHAGHAT.

Rintimbur.—Fort in Jáipur (Jeypore) State, Rájputána. Lat. $26^{\circ} 2' N.$, long. $76^{\circ} 30' E.$; situated on an isolated rock, the summit of which is surrounded by a massive stone wall, strengthened by towers and bastions. Within the enclosure, says Thornton, are an ancient palace, the residence of the Governor; a mosque, with the tomb of a reputed Muhammadan saint; and barracks for the garrison. East of the fortress is the town, connected with it by a long flight of steps. Rintimbur was besieged without success in 1291 by Jalál-ud-dín, the Khilji King of Delhi; in 1299, by the Wazir of Allahábád; and shortly afterwards captured by Alá-ud-dín, who put the garrison, with the Rájá and his family, to the sword. The fort was subsequently wrested from the sovereign of Delhi; and in 1516, is mentioned as belonging to Málwá. After the expulsion of Muhammad Sháh from Delhi by Humáyun in 1553, it surrendered to the Rájá of Bundí, who transferred it later on to Akbar. It probably fell into the hands of the Rájá of Jáipur on the decay of the Empire, in the middle of the 17th century.

Rioti.—Town in Gházipur District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 7700. Stands on an upland plain, 6 miles south of the Gogra, and 16 miles north-east of Ballia. Agricultural centre.

Riotipur.—Town in Gházipur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. $25^{\circ} 50' 15'' N.$, long. $84^{\circ} 25' E.$; pop. (1872), 9323. Lies on the alluvial lowlands, 1 mile south of the southern branch of the Ganges, and 8 miles east of Gházipur town.

Rípu.—One of the Dwárs or lowland tracts forming the Eastern Dwárs Subdivision of Goálpára District, Assam. Area, 242 square miles; pop. (1870), 2645; forest area, 65.05 square miles; area under cultivation, 3.42 square miles. In 1870, the land was settled with the cultivators direct for a term of seven years.

Rishikund.—Hot spring in Monghyr District, Bengal. It has been made a place of worship; and a reservoir has been built to collect the water into one pool, which is about 140 feet square, and, on the side most remote from the sources, overgrown with aquatic plants. The

bottom of the pool is partly sandy, partly rocky; and the air-bubbles rise from the surface over a space of about 30 feet wide and 140 feet long. Where the air-bubbles issue from among sand, they form a small cavity like a crater. When Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton visited this spring he found, in the month of April, that the thermometer in the air stood at 72° F.; in the water where it issued from the crevice of a rock, it rose to 110°; and in one of the craters, to 114°. A fair is held at Rishikund once in three years. It is of no great importance, there being seldom more than 2000 people present.

Risod.—Chief town of a *parganá* in Basím District, Berar; originally known as *Rishi-wat-kshetr*, or 'The place of all the Rishis.' Lat. 19° 58' 30" N., long. 76° 51' E.; pop. (1867), 4716. Place of some commercial activity. In 1858-59, a plundering party of Rohillás, being brought to bay by a detachment of the Haidarábád (Hydérábád) Contingent at the walled village of Chichamba, near Risod, resisted an infantry attack. This was the last fight of the kind in Berar.

Ritpur.—Town in Ellichpur District, Berar; 20 miles east of Ellichpur town. Lat. 21° 14' N., long. 77° 52' E.; pop. (1867), 2450. Once a place of importance, having been the *tankha jagír* of Salábat Khán. The stone wall which surrounded the town fifty years ago has almost entirely disappeared. It is said to have then had 12,000 inhabitants, many of whom deserted it owing to the oppression of Bisenchand *tálukdár* in the time of Námdár Khán. Ritpur is the chief seat of the sect known as Mánbhán, founded by Kishen Bhat about two hundred years ago. He married out of his caste, and his four sons formed a new order, into which any person might enter. Its members are professed celibates, but this rule is by no means rigidly observed. Both men and women shave all hair from the head, and wear a black waistcloth, forming a kind of skirt, to show that, having devoted themselves to religion, they in their worldly conduct no longer recognise any distinction as to sex. They bury their dead. Krishna Bhat, the founder of this sect, is said to have obtained a magic cap, by wearing which he assumed the likeness of Krishna. This cap was at last forcibly taken from him, and burnt. The principal buildings of interest are Rámchandra's temple, the Mánbhán building, called Ráj Math, and the Government school. Good water is scarce at Ritpur, the people obtaining their drinking water from Lalá's well.

Riwari.—*Tahsíl* and town in Gurgáon District, Punjab.—See REWARI.

Robartsganj.—Southern *tahsíl* of Mírzápur District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of the Son valley, with the Singrauli plateau, and comprising the most varied and picturesque scenery in the District. Area, 2632 square miles, of which 1973 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 173,540; land revenue, £6820; total Government revenue, £7368; rental paid by cultivators, £22,837.

Rohilkhand.—A Division or Commissionership in the North-Western Provinces, comprising the six Districts of BIJNAUR (Bijnor), MORADABAD, BUDAUN, BARELI (Bareilly), SHAHJAHANPUR, and the TARAI, each of which see separately; the Division being, according to the arrangement of this work, dealt with under the Districts. Area of Rohilkhand Division, 11,805 square miles; pop. (1872), 5,436,314. Lat. $27^{\circ} 35'$ to $30^{\circ} 1'$ N., long. $78^{\circ} 1'$ to $80^{\circ} 26'$ E.—For the history of Rohilkhand, the country of the Rohillá Afgháns, see BARELI (Bareilly) and MORADABAD DISTRICTS.

Rohisala.—One of the petty States of Undsárviya, Káthiáwár, Bombay. It consists of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £310; tribute of £10 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and 16s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Rohna.—Town in Wardhá District, Central Provinces. Lat. $20^{\circ} 32' 30''$ N., long. $78^{\circ} 25'$ E.; 23 miles west by north of Wardhá town. Pop. (1870), 2565, chiefly cultivators. The stream by the town has been embanked to avert floods, and a well-attended market is held every Tuesday in the dry bed and on the bank. A considerable fair also takes place yearly at the end of January. The fort was built about a century ago by Krishnaji Sindhia, who held the town rent free from the Haidarábád and Bhonslá Governments, in consideration of maintaining 200 horsemen. Rohna has a village school, and in the neighbourhood are gardens of opium, sugar-cane, and spices.

Rohri (or, as written by the natives, *Lohri*).—A Sub-District forming part of Shikárpur Collectorate, Sind, lying between $27^{\circ} 7'$ and $28^{\circ} 32'$ N. lat., and between $68^{\circ} 52'$ and $70^{\circ} 15'$ E. long. Area, 4258 square miles; population (1872), 217,515 souls. Bounded on the north and west by the Indus, on the north-east and east by the States of Baháwalpur and Jáisalmír (Jeysulmere), and on the south by Khairpur. Headquarters at ROHRI TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—The Sub-District consists mainly of a desert known as the Registán, constituting a portion of the vast plain of Shikárpur. It is broken by sandhills, which are often bold in outline, and fairly wooded. A small limestone range in the south-west of the Sub-District runs from near Rohri town due north and south into Khairpur. The Indus is supposed to have once flowed past these hills near the ancient town of Aror, and to have been diverted into its present channel through the Bakhar Hills by some great natural convulsion. The Ren Nálá, said to be the bed of an old branch of the Indus, is found in the Registán. The principal canals in Rohri are—the EASTERN NARA, 13 miles long and 156 feet wide at its mouth, with strong sluice-gates, but in its course towards the south cut up into numerous small streams, and abounding in quagmires and quicksands; the Lúndi, 16 miles long; Aror, 16 miles; Dahr, 26 miles; Masá, 32

miles; Korái, 23 miles; Maháro, 37 miles; Dengro, 16 miles. There are 57 *samindári* canals, offshoots of the Government works. The *dandhs* are—the Dahri, 20 miles long; the Garwar, 10 miles; the Kadirpur, 12 miles; the Changhan, 20 miles. The forests of Rohri cover an area of 90 square miles; the most important trees are the *pípál*, *nim*, *ber*, *siras*, *tali*, *bahan*, and *kandi*. The bush jungle consists for the most part of tamarisk. Game is abundant.

Population.—The total population of Rohri Sub-District in 1872 was returned at 217,515, of whom 176,789 were Muhammadans, 37,917 Hindus, 1853 Bháls, 134 Síkhs, and 822 'others.' The number of persons per square mile is 51. The inhabitants of the Registán are a strong, active, and temperate race. The chief towns are ROHRI and GHOTKI. Eight fairs are held in the Sub-District, 5 in the Rohri, and 3 in the Ghotki *táluk*, with an attendance varying from 400 to 20,000 people. The towns of Rohri, Ghotki, Mírpur, and Ubauro contain travellers' bungalows. The principal antiquities are the ruined town and fort of AROR, and the old stronghold of Mathelo, which is situated on rising ground about 45 miles north-east of Rohri, and is said to have been founded by a Rájput about 1400 years ago. About 2½ miles from Rohri are the ruins of an ancient town called Hakrah, built on the extremity of a rocky hill, which appears to have been gradually covered by the mud from the flood-waters of the Indus, that even now flow over the spot.

Agriculture.—Two crops are raised in Rohri, viz.—the *khariif*, sown between March and July, and reaped between July and December, which includes cotton, *joár*, *bájra*, indigo, rice, oil-seeds, vegetables, etc.; and the *rabi*, sown between November and March, and reaped in March and April, comprising wheat, gram, *dhaniya* (coriander), tobacco, and barley. *Joár* and *bájra* form the staple articles of food. Of the total area of the Sub-District, in 1872, 194,824 acres were under cultivation. Fruits and vegetables are extensively grown. Irrigation is carried on by means of canals, which have already been enumerated. The floods, or *léts*, as they are called, during the inundation of the Indus are also a source of fertility; but when excessive, they cause great destruction to land and crops. Protective embankments have been erected in several villages. The fiscal settlement of the Sub-District was begun in 1856-57, but not completed till 1871-72. The average rate per acre assessed on cultivable land is R. 1. 12. (or 3s. 6d.) in the Rohri and Mírpur *táluks*, Rs. 2. 4. (or 4s. 6d.) in both Saidpur and Ubauro, and Rs. 2. 10. (or 3s. 3d.) in Ghotki. The principal tenure is the *maurasi*, by which the tenants possess a right of occupancy. The *samindári* system also prevails to some extent. Land is held in *jágir* in every *táluk*, but the largest area is found in that of Rohri, viz. 31,000 acres. In connection with the *jágirs* must be mentioned the

Sayyids of Bakhar and Rohri, who have held lands in gift in this Sub-District from about 1290 A.D. Grants of land were also made to them in 1712, by Jahándar Sháh. The conditions on which the Sayyids held their territory seem to have been (1) to pray for their imperial masters, and (2) to guard the country from marauders. The privileges of the Sayyids were confirmed by the Kalhora sovereigns, but Mír Sohráb Khán Tálpur altered their land assessments and remissions into a fourth share of the revenue alienated to the grantees. Since 1854, no changes have been made in the general condition of the Sayyids, who in 1872 numbered about twelve persons.

Manufactures, etc.—Pottery, coarse cloth, lime, salt, and saltpetre are the chief manufactures of the Sub-District. The annual quantity of lime made is estimated at 100,000 *maunds*, or about 3660 tons. The annual out-turn of saltpetre at Aror is 1300 *maunds*, or about 47 tons. The towns of Ghotki and Khairpur Dharki are noted for their manufacture of pipe-bowls, scissors, and cooking-pots. The most important exports from Rohri are grain, fuller's earth, salt, lime, oil, wool, fruits, silk cloth, and indigo. The imports are wheat, sugar, tobacco, *ghí*, metals, cotton cloth, and shoes. The Sub-District also carries on a considerable transit trade in grain, sugar, molasses, wool, wine, iron bars and pots, and cotton. The total length of roads is 400 miles. The main trunk road is that which connects Haidarábád with Múltán (Mooltan). There are 21 ferries in Rohri Sub-District, of which 13 are on the Indus and 8 on the Nára. The main postal line runs from Rohri and Ubauro to Sabzalkot in Baháwalpur and thence to Múltán, 204 miles distant.

Revenue.—The imperial revenue in 1873-74 amounted to £37,966, of which £33,827 was derived from the land tax, £929 from excise, £1092 from stamps, £481 from salt, £325 from fines and fees, and £593 from miscellaneous sources. The local revenue was £3915, furnished by cesses on land and *sayer* revenue, fisheries, cattle pound and ferry funds. The gross revenue was therefore £41,881. There is no special civil officer in the Sub-District, but the civil jurisdiction of the subordinate court of Sukkur extends over the 5 *tályks* of Rohri. The Sub-District is administered by a Deputy Collector with full magisterial powers. The total number of police is 270, or 1 policeman to every 806 of the population. In 1873-74, there were 28 Government schools, with 1491 pupils. There is one school for girls, viz. at Rohri town. The Sub-District contains two municipalities, ROHRI and GHOTKI; their aggregate receipts in 1873-74 amounted to £1781, and their expenditure to £1434.

Climate.—The transition from the hot to the cold season is very sudden in Rohri. The rainfall registered in 1874 was 14.62 inches. The prevalent diseases are fevers, ague, rheumatism, and dysentery.

Rohri.—Town in Shikárpur District, Sind; situated in lat. $27^{\circ} 42'$ N., and long. $68^{\circ} 56'$ E., upon the right bank of the Indus, on a rocky eminence of limestone interspersed with flints. It is said to have been founded by Sayyid Rukandín Sháh in 1297. The rocky site of Rohri is terminated abruptly on the western side by a precipice 40 feet high, rising from the bank of the river, which during the inundation season attains a height of about 16 feet above its lowest level. On the northern side of the town is the mouth of the NARA (EASTERN) channel (*q.v.*), 156 feet wide, which is provided with powerful sluice-gates to regulate the supply of water, as required, from the Indus. Rohri, when seen from a little distance, has a striking and pleasing appearance, the houses being lofty, frequently four and five storeys high, with flat roofs surrounded by balustrades; some are of burnt brick, erected many years ago by wealthy merchants belonging to the place. But the streets are in several parts very narrow, and the air close and unwholesome. Rohri has road communication with Mírpur, Kandár, and Sangrá, and the main trunk road from Haidarábád to Múltán also passes through it. The chief public buildings of the place are the *mukhtiárkár's* court, municipal commissioner's office, dispensary, police station, travellers' rest-house, Government schools, post office, and cattle pound. The police force for the protection of the town numbers 31 men, of whom 23 are foot, rural and District police, and the remainder mounted on either horses or camels. Rohri has a large number of Muhammadan places of worship. One, known as the Jamá Masjíd, was built in 1564 by Fateh Khán, a lieutenant of the Emperor Akbar; it is a massive but gloomy pile of red brick, covered with three domes, and coated with glazed porcelain tiles. The other, the Idgah Masjíd, was erected in 1593 by Mír Musan Sháh. The War Mubárak, a building about 25 feet square, situated to the north of the town, was erected about 1545 by Mír Muhammad, the reigning Kalhora prince, for the reception of a hair from the beard of Muhammad. This hair, to which miraculous properties are ascribed by the faithful, is set in amber, which again is enclosed in a gold case studded with rubies and emeralds, the gift of Mír Alí Murád of Khairpur. The relic is exposed to view every March, when the hair is made by some mechanical process to rise and fall, a fact which the devotees are led to believe proceeds from supernatural agency. Rohri possesses a municipality, established in 1855, and the town has, in consequence, been greatly improved both as regards health and appearance. The population, according to the Census of 1872, was found to be 8580, of whom 4766 were Hindus, and the remainder Musalmáns. The former, who are mostly of the Bania caste, are engaged in trade, banking and money-broking, while the Muhammadans are chiefly of the Kázi, Sayyid, Bhuta, Kori, Pato'i, Muhána, Khati, Memon, Shaikh,

and Shikári tribes. The trade is principally in grain, oil, *ghí*, salt, fuller's earth, lime, and fruits. *Tasar* silk is manufactured, as well as gold and silver bracelets, and other ornaments. Paper of an indifferent quality is also made here, but, as a whole, the manufactures are unimportant. Opposite to Rohri on the Indus is the small island of Khwája Khizr, containing the shrine of a saint who is revered alike by Muhammadans and Hindus.

Rohtak.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between $28^{\circ} 19'$ and $29^{\circ} 17'$ N. lat., and between $76^{\circ} 17'$ and $77^{\circ} 30'$ E. long. Area (1868), 1823 square miles, but according to the Parliamentary Abstract (1878), 1811 square miles; population in 1868, 536,959. Rohtak is a District of the Hissár Division. It is bounded on the north by Karnál, on the east by the Native State of Dujána and by Delhi District, on the south by Gurgáon, and on the west by Hissár and the Native State of Jínd (Jhínd). The administrative headquarters are at the town of ROHTAK, on the main road from Delhi to Hissár.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Rohtak lies in the midst of the level table-land separating the Jumna (Jamuná) and Sutlej (Satlaj) valleys, and is one of the few Punjab Districts which nowhere abuts on any one of the great rivers. Its surface is one unbroken plain, consisting of a hard clay, copiously interspersed with light yellow sand, and covered in its wild state by a jungle of scrubby brushwood. Towards the south-west, the proportion of sand increases as the plain approaches the confines of the desert; but in the remainder of the District, cultivation has probably reached its utmost limit. Eastward, the land falls gradually towards the Delhi frontier, becoming low and swampy in the neighbourhood of the Najafgarh *jhil*, a marshy lake which forms the only natural reservoir for the drainage of the District. The *jhil* itself lies within the boundaries of DELHI, but the Sahibi, a little *ndla* flowing from the Ajmere (Ajmír) Hills, traverses a corner of Rohtak, and is the solitary stream of which the District can boast. During the rainy season, it throws off numerous smaller water-courses, which irrigate and occasionally flood the surrounding country. The Rohtak and Butána branches of the Western Jumna Canal supply water to the northern *parganás*, but the greater portion of the central plain is entirely dependent upon the uncertain rainfall. So absolutely level is the surface, that rain sinks in as it falls; and it is only by artificial means that the water can be enticed into the tanks which have been rudely excavated in the neighbourhood of every village. Their origin is of immemorial antiquity, and their pleasant fringe of trees and brushwood forms a characteristic feature in the otherwise monotonous landscape. The only exception to the general flatness is to be found on a part of the Gurgáon boundary, where a few low slaty

hills crop up above the barren and sandy levels of the south-western angle. Game is plentiful, including wild pig, deer, and hare. Pea-fowl, partridge, and small birds are to be met with throughout the year; and during the cold season, wild geese, bustards, and flamingoes swell the list. Wolves are still common, and a stray leopard is occasionally killed.

History.—Rohtak was formerly included within the undefined boundaries of the region which bore the name of Hariána. The town of Mahím appears to have been its most important centre in early years, and is said to have been destroyed by Shaháb-ud-dín Ghori, but restored in 1266. Little can be ascertained, however, with reference to its annals before the year 1718, when the whole of Hariána was granted by the Emperor Farrukhsiyár to his minister, Rukhan-ud-daulá. The courtier made over his title in turn to a Baluch noble, Faujdár Khán, who was created Nawáb of Farrukhnagar in 1732. The Nawáb's dominions embraced the present Districts of Hissár and Rohtak, besides part of Gurgáon and a considerable region since annexed by the Sikh chieftains of Jínd and Patiála. Faujdár Khán handed down his possessions to his son, who held them with varying fortunes till his death in 1760. That date coincides with the final collapse of the decaying empire, being the year in which Alamgir was murdered, and the titular Emperor Sháh Alam ascended the throne of Delhi. His rule hardly extended beyond the city walls, and a period of anarchy set in. The next year saw the crushing defeat of the Marhattás at Pánípat, after which the Sikh adventurers began to change their policy from mere predatory incursions to conquest and settlement. The new Nawáb of Farrukhnagar found his title from the first purely nominal; and in 1762, he was driven from his capital by the Ját leader, Jawáhar Sinh of Bhartpur (Bhurt pore). For the next twenty years, Hariána passed through the usual vicissitudes of Upper India in this anarchic time: now the Nawáb recovered for a time his hereditary dominions; now Najaf Khán bestowed them on one of his followers; and now again the husband of Begam Sumru of Sardhána (Walter Reinhardt) held part of them in fief. The Marhattás in 1785 put a stop for a while to these disorders; but even Sindhia was not able to repel the Sikh invasions, and in the end he was compelled to settle large portions of Hariána on the Sikh rulers of Kaithal and Jínd. Meanwhile, the military adventurer George Thomas had carved out a principality for himself from the remainder, and fortified his position in two strongholds at Georgegarh near Jhajjar, and Hánsi in the District of Hissár. In 1802, the Marhattás, under their French generals, succeeded in ousting Thomas; but the conquests of Lord Lake, a year later, laid the whole country, up to the Sutlej and the Siwálíks, at the feet of the British Government. In fact, however, the supremacy of the Marhattás west of the Jámna, in its upper course, had been little more than nominal; and some

time elapsed before any practical measures were taken in the cis-Sutlej and Hariána regions. The northern *parganás* of Rohtak were held by the Sikh chiefs of Jínd and Kaithal, while the south was claimed by the Pathán Nawáb of Jhajjar. All these petty princes were confirmed in their holdings, and only the central portion of the modern District was directly retained by the British Government. This was for a while entrusted to the native Governors (Názims) of Hariána; but the frequent incursions of Sikh and Bhatti marauders compelled the despatch of an English officer in 1810, to bring the region into better organization. The few *parganás* thus subjected to British rule formed the nucleus of the present District. Other fringes of territory became escheated on the deaths of the Kaithal Rájá in 1818, and the chieftain of Jínd in 1820. In the last-named year, Hissár and Sirsa were separated from Rohtak; and in 1824, the District of Pánípat (now Karnál) was erected into a separate charge. Up to the year 1832, Rohtak was administered by a Political Agent under the Resident at Delhi; but it was then brought under the General Regulations, and annexed to the North-Western Provinces. On the outbreak of the Mutiny in 1857, Rohtak was for a time completely lost to the British Government. The Muhammadan tribes united with their brethren in Gurgáon and Hissár, and began a wild predatory movement under the Nawábs of Farrukhnagar, Jhajjar, and Bahádargarh, and the Bhatti chieftains of Sirsa and Hissár. They attacked and plundered the civil station at Rohtak, destroying every record of administration. But before the fall of Delhi, a force of Punjab levies was brought across the Sutlej, and order was restored with little difficulty. The rebel Nawábs of Jhajjar and Bahádargarh were captured and tried. The former was executed at Delhi, while his neighbour and relative escaped with a sentence of exile to Lahore. Their estates were confiscated, part of them being temporarily erected into a new District of Jhajjar, while other portions were assigned to the Rájás of Jínd, Patiála, and Nábha, as rewards for their services during the Mutiny. Rohtak District was transferred to the Punjab Government; and in 1860, Jhajjar was broken up, part of it being added to the territory of the loyal Rájás, and the remainder united with Rohtak.

Population.—The territorial changes which followed so fast during the middle of the present century, make it impossible to give any accurate comparative statement of the population at different periods; but by adding and subtracting the official returns for the various fluctuating *parganás* at either date, I find an increase on the constant portion, between 1846 and 1868, amounting to 61 per cent. So great an advance in little more than twenty years is scarcely credible; yet we must allow a very rapid rate of growth, as the more accurate figures of the enumerations taken in 1853 and 1868 show an increase of 20 per

cent. in fifteen years, which may be accepted as approximately correct. The only Census, however, which gives the actual number of inhabitants in the District as at present constituted is that of 1868, which disclosed a total population of 536,959 persons, inhabiting 504 villages or townships and 138,717 houses, spread over an area of 1823'21 square miles. From these data the following averages may be deduced :—Persons per square mile, 294; villages per square mile, 0'28; houses per square mile, 76'08; persons per village, 1065; persons per house, 3'87. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 292,389; females, 244,570: proportion of males in total population, 54'45 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 99,440; females, 82,733; total children, 182,173, or 33'92 per cent. As regards religious distinctions, Rohtak is essentially a Hindu District, as many as 456,229 persons, or 84'97 per cent., being adherents of the ancestral faith. The Muhammadans here sink to 71,118 persons, or 13'24 per cent. Only 257 Sikhs are recorded, belonging chiefly to the ruling families. The residue of 9355 are returned as 'others,' the vast majority of them being Jains, who are more numerous in Rohtak than in any other District of the Punjab; they yield in the aggregate a proportion of 1'74 per cent. As regards ethnical distinctions, the Bráhmans number 55,206 persons, most of whom are engaged in agriculture, an occupation which they follow with much indolence and thriftlessness. The Rájputs amount to 7212 Hindus and 17,302 Musalmáns. Like their neighbours, the Bhattis of Hissár and Sírsa, they still retain somewhat of the cattle-lifting reputation which they earned during the long anarchy of the Sikh and Marhattá struggle. The trading classes are represented by 30,831 Baniás, a large number of whom profess the Jain creed. The majority of the people belong to the inferior castes, amongst which the Játis rank by far the first, forming more than one-third of the whole population. They are returned at 186,046 Hindus, and 1458 converted to Islám. The Játis keep up their usual reputation for painstaking agriculture; they are divided into two principal clans, which entertain towards one another a singular animosity. There is also a considerable sprinkling of Gújars (2909), Patháns (5521), and Baluchis (2225). The District is noticeable for the very small number of minor villages, and the large proportion of towns with a population exceeding 5000. In 1868, there were 13 so returned—namely, ROHTAK (14,153), JHAJJAR (12,617), BERI (9723), MAJRA (7908), BAHADURGARH (7259), GOHANA (7124), MAHIM (6768), BUTANA (6197), KALANAUR (5646), BARODA (5124), SANGHI (5117), MANDLANA (5109), and SISRANA (5051). These figures show a total of 97,796 persons, or 18'21 per cent. of the inhabitants; but they cannot be considered to represent the urban as opposed to the rural popula-

tion, since many of the above-named places are rather overgrown villages than towns strictly so called. As there were also 152 villages containing a population of more than 1000, the tendency for the agricultural body to aggregate in considerable clusters is very marked, and may perhaps be set down to the general insecurity of the country during the century which preceded the British occupation. In 1868, 290,184 persons were returned as engaged in agriculture, and 246,775 as otherwise employed. Urdu and Hindi are the languages in common use.

Agriculture.—Almost all the available land in the District is already under cultivation, the returns in 1869 showing a total of 905,600 acres of tillage, with a narrow margin of 139,942 acres of cultivable waste. In the central and southern *pargands*, where the peasant is entirely dependent upon the rainfall for his water supply, barley and gram form the staple spring crops, while *joár*, *bájra*, and cotton are the mainstays of the autumn harvest; but in the canal-irrigated villages to the north and east, wheat is added to the list in spring, and rice or sugar-cane in autumn. The total area under each crop in 1872-73 was as follows:—*Rabi*—wheat, 126,252 acres; barley, 112,241 acres; gram, 122,057 acres; *Kharif*—*joár*, 251,231 acres; *bájra*, 216,995 acres; cotton, 49,412 acres; and sugar-cane, 10,927 acres. Irrigation is chiefly confined to the canal system, the depth of water below the surface being generally too great to permit the profitable working of wells. The total area irrigated in 1868-69 amounted to 146,993 acres, of which 122,038 were supplied from Government works and 24,955 from private sources. The use of manure is on the increase, and the villagers are beginning to appreciate the value of a rotation of crops. Yet the District authorities are of opinion that cultivation has almost reached its highest point, and the land is reported to be in a condition of gradual impoverishment. The growth of cotton and hemp is increasing; and in the central *pargands*, rice is pushing *bájra* out of the field. The average out-turn per acre is as follows:—Wheat, 905 lbs.; inferior grains, 400 lbs.; cotton, 126 lbs.; rice, 583 lbs. The mode of tenure known as *bháyáchára*, or brotherhood, is the most common. In parts of the District, several villages are banded together by custom into an organized cluster (or *tappa*), owning the supremacy of one chief (or *tappadári*) village. The *tappa* includes all the communities immediately surrounding the central and supreme village, without distinction of race or caste; and the league is thus in all probability a relic of some defensive arrangement, concerted during the period of Sikh and Bhatti incursions. In many villages, local custom subjects the non-cultivating classes to a tax (called *kamini*) in favour of the proprietors. By far the greater part of the soil is cultivated by tenants-at-will. Rents rule as follows, according to the nature of the crop which the soil is fitted to

produce :—Cotton lands, from 6s. to £1 per acre ; sugar-cane lands, from 8s. 9d. to £2 per acre ; wheat lands, irrigated, from 4s. to £1 ; dry, from 2s. to 10s. per acre ; other grains, dry land, from 1s. to 6s. per acre. Wages have risen of late years, the change being attributed to the emigration of labourers (principally Chamárs), to find employment on the railway and the Sirhind Canal. Skilled workmen in towns are paid at the rate of 7½d. per diem, and unskilled workmen receive from 3d. to 4½d. Agricultural labourers are generally paid in cash ; as much as 4½d. per diem, with food, is sometimes given at harvest-time. In canal villages, labourers take their wages in kind, receiving one-third of the crop. Prices of food grains ruled as follows in 1873 :—Wheat, 21 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 4d. per cwt. ; gram, 28 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. per cwt. ; *jodr*, 33 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 4½d. per cwt. ; *bájra*, 29 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 10½d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Rohtak, like its neighbour Hissár, suffers greatly from drought. Two-thirds of its area is entirely dependent on the rainfall, and scarcity from this cause pressed upon the District in 1824, 1830, 1832, and 1837. The severe famine of 1860-61 taxed the people to their utmost endurance ; and the season of 1868-69 was one of the most disastrous on record. Two successive crops, both of grain and fodder, had failed in the dry southern plain, and distress began to show itself early in 1868. Relief measures were at once adopted, and the total number of persons who received gratuitous assistance during the month of January 1869 amounted to 150,102. Famine works were also undertaken, and continued until August. Fears were at one time entertained for the succeeding autumn and spring harvests, but rain happily fell in time to save the District from such an aggravation of its misfortunes. The loss of cattle added to the misfortunes of the cultivating classes. Out of 350,100 head in the District, as many as 88,300, or more than 25 per cent., perished from starvation or disease.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—Rohtak is a purely agricultural District, whose produce hardly more than suffices for its home consumption. A small surplus of grain, cotton, and other raw materials is exported to Delhi, Meerut, and Saháranpur ; while piece-goods, spices, iron, sugar, salt, and timber are imported in exchange. Trade is carried on both at permanent markets and religious fairs. There are no manufactures of more than local importance, with the exception of ornamental turbans at Rohtak and saddlery at Kalánaur. Pretty pottery is made at Jhajjar, and cotton cloth for home use is woven in large quantities. The District had 52 miles of metalled and 507½ miles of unmetalled road in 1873, but it has no other means of communication ; there is no railway, and the canal is not navigable in this part of its course.

Administration.—The imperial revenue from the District amounted in 1872-73 to £93,310, of which £89,184, or 95 per cent., was derived

from the land tax. There was also a local revenue of £7438, besides certain provincial dues which are not collected by separate Districts. The administrative staff consists of a Deputy Commissioner, 2 extra-Assistant Commissioners, 4 *tahsildars*, and their subordinates. There were 11 civil and revenue courts in Rohtak in 1872-73. The imperial police numbered 383 men of all grades in 1871-72, besides 124 municipal constables, and 15 special policemen in two punitive posts. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 522 men, or 1 policeman to every 3·49 square miles of the area and to every 1028 of the population. The necessity for a special village watch is superseded in this District by a local custom, in accordance with which all the able-bodied men of each community take their turn as watchmen by lot. The watch is relieved at midnight, and the duty is efficiently performed without expense to the villagers. The total number of persons brought to trial upon all charges in 1872 amounted to 1849. There is only one jail in the District, the average daily number of prisoners in which amounted to 188 in 1872; the total jail population being 586. Education is slowly progressing. In 1872-73, there were 2852 children receiving instruction, at a total cost to Government of £1701. The District is subdivided into 4 *tahsils*, with an aggregate of 501 villages and 74,032 proprietors or shareholders. There are 3 municipalities, viz. Rohtak, Beri, and Jhajjar; but a municipal income is also realized at Bahádar-garh, Kharkhoda, Gohána, Mahím, Asoda, and Mandhoti. The aggregate revenue of the first five of these towns amounted in 1871-72 to £2400, being at the rate of 1s. 0½d. per head of their population.

Sanitary Aspects.—The climate of Rohtak is considered healthy, except in the northern portions, where percolation from the cañal produces malaria, and generates the same fevers and spleen complaints that are so common under similar circumstances in the adjoining District of Karnál. Small-pox also exists in an endemic form. The total number of deaths from all causes reported in 1872 was 7883, or 15 per thousand of the population; but these figures are doubtless considerably below the truth. The total rainfall in the District was 13·2 inches in 1866-67, 24·3 inches in 1867-68, 10·2 inches in 1868-69 (the year of scarcity), 18·7 inches in 1869-70, 15·7 inches in 1870-71, 15·5 inches in 1871-72, and 26·4 inches in 1872-73.

Rohtak.—Western *tahsil* of Rohtak District, Punjab; consisting of a sandy and almost waterless plain. Pop. (1868), 162,244; persons per square mile, 276.

Rohtak.—Municipal town in Rohtak District, Punjab, and headquarters of the District and *tahsil*. Lat. 28° 54' N., long. 76° 38' E.; pop. (1868), 14,153, consisting of 8208 Hindus, 5808 Muhammadans, 116 Sikhs, and 21 Christians. Lies 42 miles north-west of Delhi, on

the Hissár road. Dates from a remote antiquity, but little can now be recovered of its early history. The ancient site, known as Khokra-kot, lies a small distance north of the modern town. Rebuilt, according to one tradition, in the time of Prithwí Ráj (1160 A.D.); according to another, as early as the middle of the 4th century. During the stormy period which succeeded the decay of the Mughal Empire, Rohtak fell into the hands of one chieftain after another. Became in 1824 the headquarters of a British District. Centre of local trade; small commercial importance outside its own neighbourhood. Manufacture of cloth turbans. Court-house, police station, *tahsili*, church, *dák* bungalow, post office, school-house, dispensary, public gardens. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £522, or 8½d. per head of the population (15,025) within municipal limits.

Rohtang.—Pass in Kángra District, Punjab, over the Himálayan ranges. Lat. 32° 22' 20" N., long. 77° 17' 20" E. The pass lies between Koksár in Lahúl and Palchán in Kullu. A made road runs over it, practicable for laden mules and ponies. The crest has an elevation of only 13,000 feet above the sea—very much lower than that of most neighbouring passes. The range on either side rises to a height of 16,000 feet, while several peaks within 12 miles exceed 20,000 feet. The main road from Sultánpur and Kángra to Leh and Yárkand crosses this pass, and then proceeds by the valley of the Bhága to the Bára Lácha, whence it descends into Ladákh. The Rohtang has been crossed in December, but becomes dangerous from the beginning of October.

Rohtásgarh.—Hill fort in Sháhábád District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 37' 30" N., long. 83° 55' 50" E. The principal place of interest in the District from an antiquarian point of view; deriving its name from Rohitáswa, son of Harischandra, a Hindu king of the Solar dynasty, whose image was worshipped on this spot till destroyed by Aurangzeb. Little is known concerning the persons who held the fort from Harischandra's time until 1539, the year of its capture by Sher Sháh, who immediately began to strengthen the works, but soon after selected a more favourable site at SHERGARH. Mán Sinh, Akbar's Viceroy of Bengal and Behar, at the end of the 16th century, chose Rohtás as his stronghold; and two inscriptions in Sanskrit and Persian attribute to him all the buildings now existing. The remains of the fortress occupy a part of the tableland of Rohtásgarh, about 4 miles from east to west and 5 miles from north to south, with a circumference of nearly 28 miles. In 1848, Dr. Hooker ascertained its precise elevation to be 1490 feet. Much of the area is bare rock, but there is also a large quantity of red soil. The hill is accessible by 83 paths, of which four are called the great *gháts*, and the rest *ghátis*. The principal antiquities of Rohtásgarh are—two temples, said to have been built by Mán Sinh, one of which is

covered by a dome surpassing in lightness all the Hindu works that Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton had ever seen; a small mosque, ascribed to Aurangzeb; the palace or *mahál sardí*, with the building known as the *bará dwári* or twelve gates, where business was transacted. All these edifices are fully described in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xii. pp. 209-212. There is another famous Rohtas fort on the skirts of the Salt Range, in the Punjab. (See under ROTAS, the spelling fixed by the Punjab Government.)

Rojhan.—Municipal town in Derá Ghází Khán District, Punjab. Lat. $28^{\circ} 17' N.$, long. $68^{\circ} 19' E.$; pop. (1868), 5656, consisting of 1269 Hindus, 4319 Muhammadans, and 68 Sikhs. Situated upon the west bank of the Indus, below Derá Ghází Khán. Capital of the Mazári Baluchis, having been founded by Bahrám Khán, Tumándár or chief of that tribe, about 1825. The present chief has built a fine court-house for his own use as honorary magistrate, and a mosque and handsome tomb in memory of his father and nephew. Manufacture of woollen rugs and nose-bags for horses. Municipal revenue in 1871-72, £128, or $5\frac{1}{2}d.$ per head of population within municipal limits.

Rokha Jáis.—*Parganá* and town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh.—See JAIS.

Ro-kywon.—Revenue circle in the U-rí-toung (West) township of Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2244; gross revenue, £1073.

Ron.—Chief town of the Subdivision of Ron in Dhárwár District, Bombay. Lat. $15^{\circ} 41' 30'' N.$, long. $75^{\circ} 11' 1'' E.$; 52 miles east by north of Dhárwár. Pop. (1872), 5251. Post office.

Ronáhi.—Town in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh; situated 10 miles from Faizábád town, near the bank of the Gogra. Pop. (1869), 5193, viz. 3664 Hindus and 1529 Muhammadans. Five Hindu and 3 Jain temples; *sardí*; Government school. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway and the Faizábád road pass through the town.

Roorkee.—*Tahsil* and town in Saháranpur District, North-Western Provinces.—See RURKI.

Rori.—Municipal town in Sírsa District, Punjab. Lat. $29^{\circ} 43' N.$, long. $75^{\circ} 37' E.$; pop. (1868), 2706; distant from Sírsa town 19 miles north-west. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £35.

Roshnábád.—Estate or *zamíndárá* in Tipperah District, Bengal. Area, 589 square miles, comprising 53 fiscal divisions. A permanently settled estate, belonging to the Rájá of Hill Tipperah, who pays an annual land revenue of £15,361.

Roshra.—Town in Darbhánga District, Bengal.—See RUSERA.

Ro-ta-rúp.—Revenue circle in the U-rí-toung (West) township of Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 3900; gross revenue, £583. Products—rice, cotton, and bamboos.

Rotás.—Ruins in Jhelum (Jhflam) District, Punjab. Lat. $32^{\circ} 55'$ N., long. $73^{\circ} 49'$ E. Famous fort, built by Sher Sháh, the Afghán prince who successfully opposed the Mughal dynasty, as a check on the Ghakkar tribes. Situated in the Salt Range, on a hill overlooking the gorge of the Kuhán Nadi, 11 miles north-west of Jhelum town. The walls extend for 3 miles, and encircle the rocks which command the entrance of the pass. Some parts have a thickness of from 30 to 40 feet. The total area enclosed by the fortifications amounts to 260 acres. One gateway still remains in excellent preservation; the rest has fallen into ruins, which form a most striking and picturesque group.

Rouk-thwa.—A stream which rises in the Pong-loung range in Toung-ngú District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. After a south-westerly course of about 30 miles, it falls into the Tsit-toung about 6 miles north of Mún, a village in Shwe-gyeng District. Navigable in the rains by boats 30 feet long as far as Eng-bhek, but during the dry season only as far as Rouk-thwa-wa village. This river forms an outlet for timber grown on the neighbouring hills.

Rudauli.—*Parganá* in Bára Bánki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by the Gogra river, on the east by Mangalsi, on the south by Mawái Maholára, and on the west by Basorhi and Daryábád. Area, 173 square miles, or 111,102 acres, of which 73,316 acres are cultivated. Pop. (1869), 120,902, viz. 94,861 Hindus and 26,041 Muhammadans. Of the 196 villages comprising the *parganá*, 86 are held in *tálukdári*, 70 in *zamindári*, and 40 in *pattidári* tenure. Seven market villages; 9 village schools; post office; police station, with 2 outposts.

Rudauli.—Town in Bára Bánki District, Oudh, and headquarters of Rudauli *parganá*; situated 37 miles south-east of the civil station, in lat. $26^{\circ} 44' 45''$ N., and long. $81^{\circ} 47' 20''$ E. Its foundation is ascribed to a Bhar chief, Rudra Mall. A thriving commercial town, with daily markets, at which a brisk trade is carried on in grain, vegetables, cotton, and cloth. Pop. (1869), 11,617, viz. 6770 Musalmáns and 4847 Hindus.

Rudra Himála.—Mountain peak in Garhwál State, North-Western Provinces. Lat. $30^{\circ} 58'$ N., long. $79^{\circ} 9'$ E.; on the eastern frontier of Garhwál, towards Chinese Tartary. Thornton describes it as consisting of 5 huge snow-covered summits, rising above a mass of bare rocky cliffs. Elevation above sea level, estimated at 22,390 feet.

Rudra Prayág.—Temple in Garhwál District, North-Western Provinces. Stands at the junction of the Mandákini, draining the southern slopes of the Kedárnáth and Badrináth peaks, with the ALAKNANDA. One of the five sacred *prayágs* or confluences of the Hindus, and a halting-place for pilgrims to Himáchal. A dome-shaped rock, 30 feet in height by 15 in diameter, bears the name of Bhím-ka-chalha or the

Kitchen of Bhīm, a famous giant of Hindu mythology. It is completely excavated, and has apertures at the top, where Bhīm used to place his cooking utensils. The temple is small, and stands by the water's edge. Elevation above sea level, 2200 feet.

Rudrapur.—Town in Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 6538. Situated in lat. $26^{\circ} 26' 40''$ N., and long. $83^{\circ} 39' 35''$ E.; on the river Majhua, upon the Gorakhpur and Barhaj road, 23 miles south-east of Gorakhpur town. Remains of an enormous fort, said to have been erected by the early Rājput settlers in the District when threatened by the aboriginal Bhars, before the recovery of the country by the latter. (See GORAKHPUR DISTRICT.) Fair in February attracts about 1500 persons. Government charitable dispensary.

Rudrapur.—Village in Bareilly (Bareilly) District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. $28^{\circ} 58'$ N., long. $79^{\circ} 26' 40''$ E.; distant from Bareilly city 53 miles north, upon the Almorá road. Stands among fine mango groves. Ruined temples and tombs; malarious climate.

Rumpah.—Hill tract in Godávári District, Madras.—See RAMPA.

Runang.—Pass in Bashahr State, Punjab. Lat. $31^{\circ} 43'$ N., long. $78^{\circ} 28'$ E.; lies over a range in Kunáwar, dividing the valley of Raskalang from that of Píjar. According to Thornton, the crest does not reach the limit of perpetual snow. Closed during the four coldest months, when the route runs along a circuitous and dangerous track by the side of the Sutlej. Elevation above sea level, 14,500.

Rún-tshiep.—Revenue circle in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Búrma. Situated on the right bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy). Pop. (1876-77), 2052; gross revenue, £574.

Rupál.—A Native State in Mahi Kántha, Bombay. The area of land under cultivation was estimated in 1875 at 21,000 *bigás*; pop. (1872), 3173. The revenue was returned at £320; and tribute of £116 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £36 to the Rájá of Edar. The chief of Rupál, Thákur Mán Sinh, is a Rehwár Rājput.

Rúpar.—North-western *tahsil* of Umballa (Ambála) District, Punjab; lying at the foot of the Simla Hills, and along the south bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj).

Rúpar.—Municipal town in Umballa (Ambála) District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsil*. Lat. $30^{\circ} 57'$ N., long. $76^{\circ} 33'$ E.; pop. (1868), 8700, consisting of 3882 Hindus, 4482 Muhammadans, 333 Sikhs, and 3 Christians. Stands upon the south bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), 43 miles north of Umballa city. Town of considerable antiquity, anciently known as Rúpnapar. Occupied about 1763 by Hari Sinh, a Sikh chieftain, who seized upon a wide tract south of the Sutlej, stretching along the foot of the Himálayas. In 1792, he divided his estates between his two sons, Charrat Sinh and Dewa Sinh, the former of whom obtained Rúpar. The estates were confiscated in 1846, in consequence

of the part taken by the family during the Sikh war of the preceding year. A numerous staff of European officers resides in the town, superintending the construction of the Sirhind Canal, which will draw its waters from the Sutlej at this point. Large jail, which supplies convict labour for the works. Two important religious fairs—one Muhammadan, at the tomb of Sháh Khalid, in the month of Jaishtha, attracting 50,000 persons; the other, a Hindu bathing festival on the banks of the Sutlej, in April, attended by an equal number of persons. Brisk exchange mart between the hills and plains; thriving trade in grain, sugar, and indigo. Imports of salt from the Salt Range, re-exported to the hills in return for iron, ginger, potatoes, turmeric, opium, and hemp. Manufacture of country cloth, iron hooks, and other hardware. Assistant Commissioner's court, *tahsili*, police office, staging bungalow. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £795, or rs. 6½d. per head of population (10,294) within municipal limits.

Rúpnaráyan.—River of Bengal. The name given to the DHALKISOR from the point where it receives the waters of the SILAI, a tributary which flows into it from Midnapur District. The course of the Rúpnaráyan, from where it first touches upon Húglí District to its confluence with the Húglí river opposite Húglí Point, in lat. 22° 12' 30" N., long. 80° 6' 15" E., is generally south-easterly.

At the Kailá *ghát*, its principal ferry, the Rúpnaráyan is crossed by the Midnapur High-Level Canal from Ulúbária. It is tidal as far as the limits of the Howrah portion of the District; and a heavy bore ascends as high as the mouth of the Bakshshí *khál*, the chief tributary of the Rúpnaráyan within Húglí District. The river is protected on its right bank, within Midnapur District, by a continuous embankment 29 miles 2373 feet in length; and it is also embanked all along its left bank, within Húglí District, from its junction with the Bakshshí *khál* to its union with the Húglí river. The bordering lands are more or less inundated by the spring tides in April and May, which leave behind destructive impregnations of salt, rendering them unfit for cultivation unless small defensive works are thrown up round the fields every year to keep the water out. Grass and *hógla* reeds are the ordinary produce, except in years when the rains set in and close early, when a late rice crop can be planted in September. The Rúpnaráyan is navigable throughout the year by native boats of 4 tons burden as far as Ghátál village, in Midnapur District. The river is not fordable at any season of the year within the limits of Húglí District.

Rúpnaráyan and Rasulpur Canal.—Tidal canal in Midnapur, Bengal, extending from Rúpnaráyan to the Rasulpur river, in the Hijili portion of the District; divided into two reaches. The first reach is called the Bánká Canal, and runs from near the mouth of the Rúpnaráyan river to the Haldí river, a distance of 8 miles: top width, 72

feet; bottom width, 62 feet; depth, 8 feet. The second section is called the Tiropkiá Canal, and runs from the Haldí to the Rasúlpur river, a length of 18 miles: top width, 92 feet; bottom width, 64 feet; depth, 8 feet. These canals were completed and opened throughout on the 1st September 1873. They are intended for navigation only; and the tolls taken during the year 1873-74 amounted to £2797, 16s., while the miscellaneous revenue was £63, 18s. The deficiency for the year, exclusive of interest, was estimated at £999, 6s.

Rúpnaþ.—Village in the *parganá* of Amwí, in the Jáintia Hills, Assam, with a Hindu temple greatly frequented by pilgrims from the plains of Sylhet. In the neighbourhood are several caverns in the limestone formation, extending for a great distance beneath the earth. Out of one of these a Chinese army is fabled to have marched to the invasion of India. In another, the hanging stalactites have been carved to represent the gods of the Hindu pantheon.

Rurkhakalán.—Town in Jalandhar (Jullundur) District, Punjab. Lat. $31^{\circ} 7' 12''$ N., long. $76^{\circ} 45' 30''$ E.; pop. (1868), 5721, consisting of 1956 Hindus, 1169 Muhammadans, and 2596 Sikhs. Agricultural centre, of merely local importance.

Rúrki.—Eastern *tahsil* of Saháranpur District, North-Western Provinces; lying at the foot of the Siwálik Hills, along the western bank of the Ganges, and watered by the Ganges Canal. Area, 789 square miles, of which 330 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 242,696; land revenue, £27,658; total Government revenue, £30,434; rental paid by cultivators, £44,896.

Rúrki.—Modern manufacturing town in Saháranpur District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsil*. Lat. $29^{\circ} 52' 25''$ N., long. $77^{\circ} 55' 40''$ E.; pop. (1872), 10,778, consisting of 6925 Hindus, 3551 Muhammadans, and 302 Christians. Stands on an elevated ridge overlooking the bed of the Soláni river, 22 miles east of Saháranpur city. Before the commencement of the Ganges Canal works, a mere mud-built village on the banks of the Soláni; now a flourishing town with broad metalled roadways, meeting at right angles, and lined with excellent shops. The Ganges Canal passes east of the town, between raised embankments. Headquarters of the Ganges Canal workshops and iron foundry, established in 1845-46, much extended and improved in 1852, and employing in 1868, 1069 hands. The Thomason Civil Engineering College, founded in 1847, for instructing natives and others in practical engineering, with a view to employment upon public works, had a total of 121 students in 1871. Cantonment for native sappers and miners and for British troops. Garrison numbers about 1000 men of all ranks. Church, dispensary, police station, post office, *tahsili*, mission school of Society for the Propagation of the Gospel. The low ground surrounding the town, together with the percolation from the canal,

gives rise to fever and other malarious diseases; much, however, has been done to remedy the evil. Excellent meteorological observatory.

Rusera (*Roshra*).—Municipal town in Darbhanga District, Bengal; situated on the east bank of the Little Gandak, just below the confluence of that river with the Bághmati, in lat. $25^{\circ} 45' 8''$ N., and long. $86^{\circ} 4' 8''$ E. Pop. (1872), 9168. The town contains a police station, distillery, and perhaps the largest *bázár* in the District; seat of a large trade in grain, oil-seeds, saltpetre, *ghí*, cloth, and other articles. An aided English school was established here in 1870. Roads run from Rusera to Dalsinharsái, Nágarbasti, Tájjpur, Baherá *viâ* Hátí and also *viâ* Hathauri, and to Rájghát on the Tiljúga. Before the change in the course of the Bághmati, direct water communication was open to Darbhanga all the year round. In 1876-77, the total registered traffic of Rusera was valued at £197,000. The principal exports were—oil-seeds, £100,000; tobacco, £15,000; and *ghí*, £12,000: the imports comprised food grain, £9000; salt, £49,000. The municipal revenue of Rusera in 1876-77 was £317, 8s.; rate of taxation, 6½d. per head of population (10,656) within municipal limits.

Rushikulya.—River in Ganjám District, Madras. Rises in the Chinna Kimidi Mályas, in lat. $19^{\circ} 55' 20''$ N., and long. $84^{\circ} 20'$ E., and runs south-east to Aska, where it is joined by the Mahánadi; thence south-east and east till it enters the sea at Ganjám town, in lat. $19^{\circ} 22'$ N., and long. $85^{\circ} 7'$ E. Its length is about 115 miles, the principal towns on its banks being Suradá, Aska, Purushottapur, and Ganjám. It is spanned at Aska by a fine masonry bridge of 19 arches.

Russellkonda (called after Mr. Russell, who was Commissioner here in 1835).—Town in Gumsar *táluk*, Ganjám District, Madras. Lat. $19^{\circ} 56' 20''$ N., long. $84^{\circ} 37' 34''$ E.; pop. (1871), 1658, residing in 967 houses. Situated on the river Loharákandi, about 50 miles north-west of Ganjám town. Headquarters of the Special Assistant Agent for the Hill Tracts, and of a *táluk* Magistrate. Court-houses, post office, and prison for the hill convicts. It was at one time a military cantonment, but was abandoned in December 1863.

Rustam.—Town in Shikárpur District, Sind.—See RASTAM.

Rutlam.—State and town in Central India.—See RATLAM.

Rwa-gún.—Revenue circle in the Shwe-doung township of Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2108; revenue, £584.

Rwa-lwot.—Revenue circle in Bhí-lú Island, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 3658; capita-tion tax, £413, and land revenue, £404.

Rwa-thit.—Revenue circle in the Kyan-kheng township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 11,595; revenue, £1951.

Rwa-thit.—Town in the above circle; situated on the left bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy). Headquarters of the Kyan-kheng township; contains a market, court-house, police station, and a public works department inspection bungalow. Pop. (1877), 3671.

Rwa-thit.—Village in the Gnyoung-kwi circle of Hénzada township and District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated 6 miles north of Hénzada, in a large rice tract. Pop. (1877), 2038.

Rwa-toung.—Revenue circle in the Mye-dai township of Thayet District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 3321; gross revenue, £782. Products—rice, sesamum, maize, and plantains.

Rwa-toung.—Town in the above township, now a suburb of ALLAN-MYO; situated in lat. $19^{\circ} 19' 20''$ N., and long. $95^{\circ} 18' 45''$ E., on the left bank of the Irawadi, just opposite the Thayet-myo cantonment. Seat of an extra-Assistant Commissioner. It contains a market and school; small police force. Pop. (1878), 2643.

Rwe.—One of the mouths of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy), the chief river of British Burma. This creek is formed by the junction of the Pú-lú (a branch of the Myoung-mya) with the Tsaga-mya, in about lat. $16^{\circ} 33'$ N., and long. $95^{\circ} 8'$ E. Lower down, the Rwe is connected with the Pya-ma-law and the Bassein, another branch of the Irawadi, by a series of inter-communicating creeks. Its course is south-south-west, length about 60 miles. Navigable by river steamers at all seasons.

Rwe-doung.—Revenue circle in the Kan-oung township of Hénzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 5892; gross revenue, £857.

Rwek-gnyo-toung.—Revenue circle in the Naaf township of Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 3925; gross revenue, £1168.

Rwon, East.—Revenue circle in the Than-lyeng township of Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 5723; gross revenue, £3955.

Rwon, West.—Revenue circle in Rangoon District, formerly united with the above circle. Manufacture of salt. Pop. (1876-77), 4275; gross revenue, £3909.

Rwon-gnya.—Revenue circle in the Than-lweng Hlaing-bhwai township of Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2310; land revenue, £231, and capitation tax, £243.

Rwon-za-leng.—A river in the Tenasserim Division of British Burma, which rises to the north of the mountainous country forming the Salwin Hill Tracts. It flows nearly due south through a narrow rocky valley as far as Kaw-ka-rit, where it joins the SALWIN. With a rapid current, it is, even in dry weather, navigable only with difficulty;

and when swollen by the rains, and dashing against the rocks which impede its course, it becomes impracticable even for rafts. It derives its name from the fact of its running through a country once inhabited by the tribe of Rwon Shan, which was overrun and annexed by Aloung-bhúra in the latter half of the 18th century. Many of the people were brought away captive, and settled in a tract south-east of Syriam, now known as the Rwon circle. •

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Saádatganj.—Town in Bára Bánki District, Oudh; situated 14 miles north-east of Bára Bánki town. Founded by Rájá Surat Sinh, the ancestor of the present *tálukdár* of the *parganá* (Rámnagar), and named after the Nawáb Saádat Alí Khán, in whose reign it was built. A clean and well-built town, with a considerable trade in grain. Pop. (1869), 2789, namely, 1630 Hindus and 1159 Muhammadans.

Sabari (*Seberi, Severi, Savari*).—River, rising in the Eastern Gháts, in the Native State of Jáipur (Jeypore), Madras; rushes through a rocky channel in a succession of rapids till it enters the Upper Godávári District, Central Provinces, within which its course for 25 miles is free from obstructions. It falls into the Godávári in lat. $17^{\circ} 35' N.$, and long. $81^{\circ} 18' E.$

Sabáthu.—Cantonment in Simla District, Punjab.—See SUBATHU.

Sábhar.—Town in Dacca District, Bengal; situated on the north bank of the Buríganga, a tributary of the Dhaleswari, in lat. $23^{\circ} 50' 55'' N.$, and long. $90^{\circ} 17' 10'' E.$ Estimated pop. in 1871, 2350. Formerly the capital of the Bhuiyá Rájá Harischandra. In 1839, the only trace that remained of his residence was a heap of bricks and earth overgrown with jungle.

Sabi.—River in Gurgáon District, Punjab.—See SAHIBI.

Sachín.—A Native State within the British Political Agency of Surat, in Guzerat, Bombay. The villages constituting the State are much separated, some of them being surrounded by British territory, and others by portions of Baroda State. Sachín may, however, roughly speaking, be said to lie within the limits of the British District of Surat. It occupies an area of about 300 square miles, with a population (1872) of 18,061. Irrigation is carried on from tanks and wells. The climate is healthy, and the usual cereals are cultivated, as well as cotton and sugar-cane. Yarn and coarse cloth are manufactured.

The Nawáb of Sachín is by descent a Habshi or Abyssinian. When his ancestors first came to India is doubtful; but they were long known on the western coast as the Sidis of Dauda, Rájápur, and Janjira. They were also the admirals of the fleets of the kings of Ahmednagar and Bijápur, in the Deccan, whilst those dynasties lasted, and subse-

quently of the Mughal Emperors; being appointed to that office by Aurangzeb about the year 1660, with an annual assignment of £30,000 on the Surat revenues for their maintenance. On the decline of the Mughal Empire the Janjira Sidis became notorious pirates, plundering the ships of all nations, except the English, whose friendship they appear to have early cultivated. The Muhammadan admirals, who had their headquarters at the island of Janjira, remained chiefs of that place during the wars between Sivají and the Mughals, also during the war between the Peshwá and the British Government. During these wars different members of the family were alternately supported by either party as best suited its own interests. Towards the end of the last century, Bálu Miá Sidi, the heir to the throne of Janjirá and to the other possessions of the Sidis, had been expelled from his dominions by a younger branch of the family (1784-91). He appealed for aid to the Marhattás and British. The Peshwá, being desirous of obtaining Janjirá, an arrangement was come to in 1791, by which Bálu Miá ceded to the Peshwá Janjirá in return for Sachín. Bálu Miá duly got possession of his new State of Sachín; but when the Peshwá claimed Janjirá the Sidis who held it refused to give it up, and succeeded in maintaining their independence. Sachín remained in the hands of Bálu Miá and his descendants; while Janjirá has been, and is still, held by the younger branch of the family who had ousted Bálu Miá; the Peshwá never having been able to establish his influence. Janjirá is reckoned a maiden fortress to this day. A full account of the transactions between the British, the Peshwá, and the rival sides of Janjirá and Sachín, will be found in Aitchison's *Treaties*, vol. iv. pp. 324 *et seq.*, ed. 1876. The present (1876-77) chief of Sachín is Nawáb Sidi Abdul Kádar Muhammad Yákut Khán, a Sunni Musalmán, aged twelve years. During his minority the affairs of the State are administered by a British officer. The chief is entitled to a salute of 9 guns, and has power to try for capital offences, without the express permission of the Political Agent, his own subjects only. He enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £15,983, and maintains a force of 62 men. The family of the chief hold a title authorizing adoption, and succession follows the rule of primogeniture. There are 6 schools in the State, with a total of 238 pupils.

Sachín.—Capital of Sachín State, Bombay; situated in lat. 21° 3' 40" N., and long. 72° 59' E., 9 miles south of Surat city.

Sadalgi.—Town in Belgaúm District, Bombay; situated 51 miles north of Belgaúm town, and 25 south-east of Kolhápúr, in lat. 16° 33' N., and long. 74° 33' E. Pop. (1872), 6863. A large area is cultivated with sugar-cane, and a considerable quantity of molasses is prepared here.

Sadar.—*Tahsíl* of Farrukhábád District, North-Western Provinces,

lying along the west bank of the Ganges. Area, 343 square miles, of which 222 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 256,516; land revenue, £23,977; total Government revenue, £28,350; rental paid by cultivators, £39,528.

Sadāshivgad (*Sadāshivgarh*).—Port in Kánara District, Bombay; situated in lat. 14° 50' 25" N., and long. 74° 10' 55" E., on the north side of the entrance to the Kálí or Kálá river. It is little more than a village, situated between two small hills, crowned by ruined forts, which once defended the entrance of the river. Average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1873-74 — imports, £1458, and exports, £6376.

Sádhaurá.—Municipal town in Umballa (Ambála) District, Punjab; situated in lat. 30° 23' N., and long. 77° 16' E., near the hills, 26 miles east of Umballa. Pop. (1868), 11,198, consisting of 4831 Hindus, 5938 Muhammadans, and 429 Sikhs. A town of great antiquity, dating back as far as the time of Mahmúd of Ghazní, but now of no political importance. Yearly fair at shrine of Sháh Komez, a Muhammadan saint, attended by about 20,000 persons. Manufacture of coarse cloth; local trade in country produce. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £352, or 7½d. per head of population (11,179) within municipal limits.

Sadiyá.—The name formerly given to a tract of country stretching along the north bank of the Brahmaputra, on the extreme north-east frontier of Assam. The administrative headquarters were at the village of SADIYA. The present *tháná* or police circle of Sadiyá, forming part of the Subdivision of Dibrugarh, in Lakhimpur District, has an area of 178 square miles; pop. (1872), 6021.

Sadiyá.—Village in Lakhimpur District, Assam; situated in lat. 27° 49' 45" N., and long. 95° 41' 35" E., on the right or north bank of the main stream of the Brahmaputra, about 100 miles above Dibrugarh. Sadiyá is the extreme north-east frontier outpost of British India, and has always been a place of much political importance. It is supposed to have been one of the first places occupied by the Ahams, when they invaded Assam from the direction of Burma. In later times, the Government of the surrounding country was administered by a viceroy of the Aham kings, with the title of Sadiyá Khoá. When the Burmese occupied Assam, this title was conferred on a chief of the aboriginal tribe of Khámtis, whose office was confirmed on the annexation of Assam by the British in 1826. The Sadiyá Khoá furnished a military contingent of 100 men, and supported himself by forced contributions. At the same time a British garrison was stationed at Sadiyá; and subsequently, in 1835, when the exactions of the Khámtí chief became intolerable, the civil administration was placed in the hands of the officer commanding the troops. In 1839, the Khámtis rose in rebellion. They cut off the outpost at

Sadiyá, and killed Major White, the commandant and Political Agent, together with the detachment of Sepoys. At this time, Sadiyá was described as an important place, with a population of 4000 souls. The *bázár* at the present time does not contain more than 20 houses. The garrison consists of 1 European officer and 122 men of the 44th Assam Native Infantry. In order to promote friendly relations with the neighbouring hill tribes of Khámtis, Mishmis, and Singphos, a fair is held annually at the time of full moon in the beginning of February. The hillmen bring down caoutchouc, wax, musk, cloth, mats, *dáos* or hill-knives, and ivory, which they exchange for cotton cloth, salt, metal utensils, silver ear-rings, beads, brass wire, and opium. In 1876, the attendance of hillmen was estimated at 3000; the value of the articles they sold at £4910, and the value of those they bought at £4447. The Deputy Commissioner of Lakhimpur is generally present at this fair, and advantage is taken of the occasion to distribute presents among the chiefs. During the rainy season, steamers can proceed up the Brahmaputra as far as Sadiyá; and it is hoped that this place may at some future day become the starting-point of a through trade between Assam and China. It is almost certain that such a trade existed in the beginning of the last century.

Sadr.—South-western *tahsil* of Muttra (Mathura) District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a level and arid plain, lying along the west bank of the river Jumna (Jamuná). Area, 286 square miles, of which 236 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 201,674; land revenue, £21,322; total Government revenue, £23,987; rental paid by cultivators, £38,073.

Sadrás (correctly Satranja-patana).—Town in Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras; situated in lat. 12° 31' 25" N., and long. 80° 12' E. Pop. (1871), 1144, inhabiting 207 houses. Sadrás first became a trading settlement by the Dutch in 1647, and was long famous for the fineness of the muslin produced by its looms. The Dutch erected, close to the shore, a brick fort of considerable extent and pretensions to strength. The ruins still remain. There are also the remains of the houses of the officials, one of which has long been in use as a halting-place for European travellers. The old Dutch cemetery is within the fort, and is still maintained in decency and order under treaty. Many of the tombstones are curious specimens of the sculptor's art. The date of the oldest is 1695. There is a Dutch church on the esplanade opposite the fort, and the Wesleyan Mission have also a small settlement here. The once bustling importance of the place has long departed. There are still a few looms, but the cunning which produced the once famous fabrics is lost. The English captured Sadrás in 1795, and although it was temporarily restored to the Dutch, it has been an English possession since 1824. The Pálár river, which debouches on the sea a few miles to the south

of Sadras, has silted up, and its bar cannot be crossed by large sea-going ships. Sadras is now a petty place on the coast, with the open sea outside, and has long ceased to be a resort of maritime commerce.

Sadrpur.—*Parganá* in Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Biswán *tahsil*, on the east by South Kundri *parganá*, on the south by Bára Bánki District, and on the west by Mahmúdábád *parganá*. Area, 108 square miles, or 69,087 acres, of which 50,268 acres are cultivated, 9743 cultivable, 133 rent-free, and 8943 uncultivable waste. The incidence of the land revenue demand is at the rate of 2s. 6½d. per acre of cultivation, 2s. 0½d. per acre of assessed area, and 1s. 10½d. per acre of total area. Pop. (1869), 54,477, namely, 47,095 Hindus and 7382 Muhammadans. The 160 villages comprising the *parganá* have been constituted into 114 demarcated *mauzds*, of which 81 are held under *tálukdári* and 33 under *zamindári* tenure. Muhammadans form the principal proprietary body, owning 119 villages, Raikwárs hold 11, Seths 5, Janwár Kshattriyás 4, Panwárs 4, Kashmíri Brahmans 4. The remaining 23 are chiefly held by Káyasths. The *parganá* is a poor one, with only 2 villages containing upwards of 2000 inhabitants. No roads, no large *bázárs*, and no fairs.

Sadrpur.—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh, and headquarters of Sadrpur *parganá*; situated 30 miles south-east of Sítápur town, but with no road or river communication with any other place. An insignificant town of (1869) 2109 inhabitants. Village school; market twice a week.

Sadullánagar.—*Parganá* in Gonda District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Utraula *parganá*, from which it is separated by the Kuwána river; on the east by Burhápára *parganá*; on the south by Manikápur *parganá*, the Bisuhi river marking the boundary line; and on the west by Gonda *parganá*. The boundary rivers are fordable every few miles, except during the rains, by men and cattle, and the more important tracks are furnished with rough bridges. Along the banks of both the rivers runs a fringe of forest, varying from 3 miles to a few hundred yards in breadth, but containing little good timber. The *sál* trees, stunted by excessive crowding, never attain sufficient size to make them of any great value; and, except the *jamún*, which is plentiful and attains a fair growth, and is of use both for building and burning, the only other tree of consequence is the *mahua*, whose flowers and fruit are leased out for the manufacture of spirits and oil, and the wood of which is largely employed in roofing the huts of the neighbouring villages. Game is not particularly plentiful. The centre of the *parganá* is a flat ugly plain, underwooded and covered with fair cultivation, alternating with tracts of the long *khar* grass. The soil is of a light dry loam. Water may be found almost anywhere at a depth of from 15 to

20 feet from the surface, and irrigation is very common both from wells and small tanks. Area, 103 square miles; cultivated area, 37,406 acres, or rather more than 56 per cent. of the whole. Of this, 22,040 acres are under *kharif*, 24,675 under *rabi*, and 12,025 under both crops, the balance being fallow. Owing to the extent of jungle, the population is, for Oudh, sparse, numbering (1869) 35,152, or 341 to the square mile. Hindus numbered 28,221, and Musalmáns 6931.

Until quite lately, the greater part of the *parganá* was under dense jungle, the home of predatory bands of nomadic tribes; and most of the present tillage commenced with the purchase of parcels of land in *birt* from the later Rájás of Utraula. Some idea of the scantiness of the agricultural population at the commencement of the present century, when the practice of selling *birt* rights became for the first time common, may be gathered from the fact that in 1815 A.D. the Government revenue was only £69. From that time the advance becomes rapid and steady. In 1819, the demand had risen to £1331, and ten years later it reached £2406. With a few trifling variations, it remained at this amount till Rájá Darshán Sinh in 1838 raised it to £3512, a figure which was never again attained under the Native Government. Shortly before annexation, it had fallen to little over £2000; and when we took over the District, Sadullánagar was assessed on the principle of half-profits at £2408. The progress of population and agriculture since that period has been incredibly rapid, and in 1872, by a revised assessment, the Government land revenue was raised to £5607, with £152 on account of cesses. In consideration of the largeness of the enhancement, and in view of the fact that much of the recently broken land was held on long leases at progressive rents, the rise has been distributed over a period of ten years, and it is not proposed to take the full demand till 1883 A.D. Of the 112 villages comprising the *parganá*, 50 are held by *tálukdárs*, paying a revenue of £2924; while 62 villages, assessed at £2835, are settled with *zamindárs*.

Sadullánagar.—Village in Gonda District, Oudh, and headquarters of Sadullánagar *parganá*; situated 28 miles north-east of Gonda town. Lat. 27° 5' 45" N., long. 82° 24' 51" E.; pop. (1869), 706. Founded in 1786 by Rájá Sadullá Khán of the Utraula family.

Sadullápur.—Village in Maldah District, Bengal. The chief descent or *ghát* to the holy stream of the BHAGIRATHI is at this place, to which the dead bodies of Hindus are brought from great distances to be burned. Market and small annual fair held in March, chiefly for religious purposes.

There is another village of this name, Sadullápur, on the right bank of the Chenab, in the Punjab, the scene of an indecisive action between our troops, under Thackwell, and the Sikh general Sher Singh, in January 1849. (*Col. Yule.*)

Safed Koh (*Súfed Koh*, *Safaid Koh*).—Range of mountains in Afghánistán, thus described by Colonel C. M. MacGregor :—

‘The range commences to the east of the Allah-koh ridge, between Kábul and Ghazní, and then follows 34° of latitude for about 75 miles to longitude $70^{\circ} 35'$, when it splits into two main ridges, one going north-east to the Khaibar and the Kábul river; the other, after a short turn to the east, continuing due east to the junction of the Kábul river with the Indus. During the first portion of its course, this range drains on the north into the Kábul river and on the south into the Kuram; and it continues to do this after its separation into two branches, though not with the same regularity, some of the easternmost drainage going direct into the Indus.

‘It is often of course quite arbitrary to say where one range commences and another ends, but I think in this case it will be best to say the Safed Koh commences from a few miles west of the Shutargardan Pass, between Kuram and Logar. This being the case, the first spur which it throws out to the north is that which forms the east watershed of the Logar river, and, dividing it from the Khúrd Kábul river, ends at Bhútkhak.

‘The next spur is that between the Khúrd Kábul and the Tezín rivers, over which are the Haft Kotál and Lataband Passes. This Wood calls the Karkacha range, or rather he confounds two distinct spurs in one under this name; but it may be doubted whether it would not more aptly be termed the Haft Kotál spur. Wood says that the ridge he calls the Karkacha, drains on the west into the Logar and east into the Súrkhab; but from Garden’s surveys we now know this to be a mistake, there being two rivers—the Khúrd Kábul and Tezín—between the Logar and Súrkhab, which drain into the Kábul river, and which rise in the Safed Koh. Consequently it is quite an error to consider the mass of mountains between the Logar and Súrkhab one spur. After the spur between the Khúrd Kábul river and Tezín, another spur comes out from the main range, and after running north for about 30 miles to the north of Jagdalak, it then turns to the east, and, running parallel with the Kábul river, ends at the junction of the Súrkhab with that river. This spur drains into the Tezín on the west and the Súrkhab on the east, and, after its eastward bend, into the Kábul river on the north and the Súrkhab on the south.

‘The other north spurs of the Safed Koh to the east are not of so marked a character, but they run between the streams which, flowing down from it, join the Súrkhab or the Kábul river; of these the principal are, commencing from the west, the Gandamak, Kárású, Chiprial, Hisárák, Kote, and Mohmand.

‘The spurs on the south of this range are not of such importance as those on the north. The first is the one which runs out from the

Shutargardan Pass, and drains on the north and east into the Hazárdarakht and Hariáb streams; on the south, into another source of the Kuram. The second is the Peiwár ridge, which comes out from the Sítárám Peak and ends at the Kuram, draining into the Keria and Hariáb rivers on the west and the Peiwár on the east. Then again, to the east there are numerous short spurs, which shoot down to the south but do not reach the river, save in the form of detritus. These need not be mentioned further, and the only other spur requiring notice is the one which, coming out somewhat to the east of longitude $70^{\circ} 30'$, runs between the Kirmán Dára and the Kirmán stream.

Wood places the west limit of the Safed Koh at long. $69^{\circ} 36' E.$, thus regarding its commencement as at very nearly the same point as I do—viz. just east of the Altímúr Pass over the Allah-koh range, in long. $69^{\circ} 30' E.$

Judging from the accounts of Wood, Bellew, and Walker, the scenery would seem to be equal in grandeur and beauty on both sides of the range; and Wood in his description of the northern side falls into an error, when he says that looking towards the summit there are successive ranges, for the main range runs east and west, and throws its spurs to the north and south. Wood says the farthest peaks are bare and irregular, the nearest covered with pine-trees, and this tallies with the graphic description given by Bellew of its south aspect.

Col. Walker says of the range—"Its highest point is the Sítárám Mountain, 15,622 feet above the sea, whence the range preserves a tolerably uniform level, perhaps nowhere less than 12,500 feet, until it again culminates in a double-peak mountain, whose summits average 14,800 feet. I have been unable to learn the local names of these peaks, or whether, like the Sítárám Mountain, they tell of a remote antiquity, when the country was ruled by Hindus long anterior to the origin of Muhammadanism. The offshoots of this range (*i.e.* the branches east of long. $70^{\circ} 30' E.$) have usually an east and west direction, and are remarkable for their parallelism with each other and with the parent range. The most important, though not the highest, of these stretches away to Attock, and is the southern boundary of the Pesháwar valley, dividing it from the system of valleys of which Kohát District is composed. Before entering British territory, it forms the southern barrier of the Tírah valley."

Col. MacGregor says the low hills of Jalalábád (ends of the north spurs of the Safed Koh) are extremely barren, but the lofty ranges of Kund, Karkacha, and Safed Koh are richly clad with pine, almond, and other trees. The appearance, he continues, of the valleys of the Safed Koh is a mixture of orchard, field, and garden. They abound in mulberry, pomegranate, and other fruit-trees; while the banks of their streams are edged with a fine sward, enamelled with a profusion of wild flowers, and fringed by rows of weeping willows.

'It is worthy of note that the Safed Koh presents in its south aspect the same glacié slopes of shingle which were observed by Griffiths on the south slopes of the spurs of the Hindu Kúsh, and which may also be noticed on parts of the hills north of the Pesháwar valley. No mention is made by any authority of this peculiarity existing on the north of this range, or, I believe, of any other range.'

Saffraí.—Coal-measure in Sibságar District, Assam, extending along the foot of the Nágá Hills to the Dikhu river. The coal is hard and of good quality, but the difficulties of transport have hitherto proved insuperable. The total supply is estimated at 10 million tons.

Safipur.—*Tahsil* or Subdivision of Unao District, Oudh, lying between $26^{\circ} 37'$ and $27^{\circ} 2' N.$ lat., and between $80^{\circ} 6'$ and $80^{\circ} 30' E.$ long. Bounded on the north by Bálgrám and Sandíla *tahsils* of Hardoi District, on the east by Mohán *tahsil* of Unao, on the south by Unao *tahsil*, and on the west by Cawnpore District in the North-Western Provinces. Area, 395 square miles, of which 231 are cultivated; pop., according to the Census of 1869, 203,626, of whom 179,748 are Hindus and 23,878 Muhammadans. Number of males, 106,435; of females, 97,191; number of villages or towns, 371; average density of population, 515 per square mile. This *tahsil* comprises the three *parganás* of Safipur, Fatehpur Chaurási, and Bángarmau.

Safipur.—*Parganá* of Unao District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Sandíla *parganá* of Hardoi District, from which it is separated by the Sáí river; on the east by Asiwán Rasúlábád; on the south by Pariar; and on the east by Fatehpur Chaurási. A well-wooded country. Area, 132 square miles, or 84,530 acres, divided into 137 townships. Soil, chiefly loam and clay; staple crop, barley. Government revenue, £10,836, at an average rate of 2s. 6½d. per acre. Pop. (1869), 72,319, viz. 62,179 Hindus and 10,140 Muhammadans. The extent of land held under the different varieties of tenure is as follows:—*Táluk-dári*, 4249 acres; *pukhtadári*, 240 acres; *pattidári*, 37,168 acres; *zamindári*, 36,181 acres; *bháydádhára*, 5531 acres; and Government villages, 1158 acres. Four large annual fairs, at one of which 15,000 persons assemble.

Safipur (or *Sáipur*).—Town in Unao District, Oudh; situated in lat. $26^{\circ} 44' 10'' N.$, and long. $80^{\circ} 23' 15'' E.$, 17 miles north-west of Unao town, on the road leading thence to Hardoi. A flourishing, well-built town, containing 89 masonry houses, 14 mosques, and 6 Hindu temples. Pop. (1869), 7286, namely, 4336 Hindus and 2950 Musalmáns. The headquarters of the Safipur *tahsil* and *parganá*. Daily market, with sales averaging £5500 a year. Flourishing school; police station. The town is said to have been originally founded by Sáí Sukal, a Bráhmaṇ, and is generally called after him, Sáipur. A religious mendicant subsequently came to the town, and was buried there, and the

name was changed to Safipur in commemoration of the holy man. *Sái Sukal* is said to have been defeated and killed in 1389 by *Ibráhim* of Jaunpur, who put his lieutenants in charge of the town, and whose descendants are the principal proprietors at the present day.

Ságar (*Saugor*).—A British District in the Chief Commissioner-ship of the Central Provinces, lying between $23^{\circ} 4'$ and $24^{\circ} 27'$ N. lat., and between $78^{\circ} 6'$ and $79^{\circ} 12'$ E. long. Area, 4005 square miles; population in 1872, 527,725 persons. Bounded on the north by *Lálitpur* District of the North-Western Provinces and the Native States of *Bijáwar*, *Panná*, and *Charkhári*; on the east by *Panná* and *Damoh* District; on the south and west by *Narsinhpur* District and the Native States of *Bhopál* and *Gwalior*. The administrative headquarters are at **SAGAR TOWN**.

Physical Aspects.—The District of *Ságar* occupies, with that of *Damoh*, the high *Vindhyán* tableland which stretches out in the north-west corner of the Central Provinces. The scarp of the *Bhánrer* range, rising abruptly from the valley of the *Narbada* (*Nerbudda*), forms a natural boundary line, from which the District extends northwards in a vast plain broken here and there by hills, with a general slope towards the north-east. So, too, east of *Ságar* town the boundary is marked by a clear escarpment, but to the north and west no salient physical feature indicates the limits of the District. The country is for the most part covered with trap; but on the north, the *Vindhyán* sandstone runs down, broadening out opposite *Kurái* and gradually disappearing southwards; and on the east, the sandstone occupies a tract about 20 miles long and 5 broad, reaching from *Garhákota* to beyond *Surkhí*. *Garhákota* itself and a narrow strip of country as far south as *Rehlí* rest on limestone. The form of the trap hills distinguishes them at once from the inlying hills of sandstone; their vegetation is also distinct, and the teak saplings which flourish on the trap rarely grow on the sandstone. The soil in the north and east of the District is a reddish-brown alluvium. The south and centre are covered with black soil, on which wheat is grown in large quantities. But the cultivated plains are broken up by hills, rising singly or in groups, and by small ranges and plateaux, some of them covered with jungle, others stony and barren. The principal streams, the *Sunár*, *Beas* (*Biás*), *Dhúpán*, and *Biná*, all flow in a northerly direction towards the valley of the *Ganges*. *Ságar*, however, contains no river of importance. Though several densely wooded tracts exist in the District, they yield no great quantity of the finer sorts of timber. The largest forest, the *Ramná*, a preserve to the north-east of *Garhákota*, covering 8 square miles, produces teak and *sáj*. Smaller forests to the south of the District, as *Mohlí* near *Rehlí*, and *Tarhá Kísli* near *Deorí*, supply teak, *sáj*, and bamboos. Towards the north, in *Sháhgarh*, lie large tracts of wooded country, comprising *mahua* and *sáj*, with some

teak, and bamboos in abundance. About 2 square miles of this region form the Tigorá reserve. The mineral wealth of the District is insignificant; but iron-ore, of excellent quality, found near Hírápur, a small village in the extreme north-east, affords occupation to a few smelting furnaces of the rudest character. In many parts, also, sandstone, well suited for building purposes, abounds.

History.—The formation of Ságár into a District rests on no historical considerations. Until quite recent times, semi-independent rulers of small tracts have co-existed at various places; and while the southern half has been governed from Rehli, the northern half has been subject to Dhámoní or Sháhgarh. Rehli, a village situated on elevated ground about 28 miles south-east of Ságár town, appears to have been originally held by the Gonds, to whom succeeded a race of shepherds, known as Baladeos. The Baladeos first settled at Khamaria, a village a mile off, but in time they removed to Rehli, where they built a fort. The place next passed into the hands of Rájá Chhatar Sál, the Bundelá chief of Panná, who made it over to Báji Ráo Peshwá, in return for assistance in a war with the Subáh of Farrukhabád. The Peshwá built the fort which now exists. The town of Ságár, after a similar history, at this time formed part of the dominions of Chhatar Sál. That chieftain died in 1735; and in addition to his previous gift to the Peshwá, left him one-third of his kingdom, including Ságár town and a considerable portion of the present District. The territory thus acquired continued to be managed by agents of the Peshwá until 1818, when, on the downfall of the Peshwá's government, the southern part of Ságár District came under British rule. The country to the north appears to have belonged to the great Gond kingdom of Mandla; and Dhámoní, about 29 miles north of Ságár town, owes its origin to a scion of that line, named Surat Sál. About the end of the 16th century, Rájá Barsinh Deva, the Bundelá chief of the neighbouring State of Orchhá, defeated Surat Sál; and made Dhámoní the capital, from which he ruled the northern part of the District. His son Pahár Sinh continued in power till 1619, when the country became a portion of the Delhi Empire. During the eighty years of Muhammadan rule which followed, Garola, Kurái, and Khimlása became places of importance. A succession of five governors from Delhi administered Northern Ságár, until about 1700, at the time of the decline of the Mughal Empire, the last of them, Nawáb Gháirat Khán, was defeated by Chhatar Sál, who thus for a short time united nearly the whole of the District under one rule. Dhámoní remained under his descendants until 1802, when Umráo Sinh, Rájá of the neighbouring village of Patan, gained the fort by treachery. Six months, however, had not passed when he was himself defeated by the army of the Rájá of Nágpur, who annexed the country. In 1818, after the flight of Apá Sáhib, Dhámoní

was taken by a British force under General Marshall. Though Sháhgarh, about 40 miles north-east of Sagar, came under British rule at a later period, its history is similar to that of Dhámoní. Originally part of the Gond kingdom of Mandla, Sháhgarh also was seized by a Bundelá chieftain, Sháhman by name, who about 1650 defeated and killed Chintáman, the last Gond ruler. The line of Sháhman ended in 1798, when his descendant Khánjú was defeated by Mardan Sinh, Rájá of Garhákota. In 1842, the son of Mardan Sinh was succeeded by a nephew named Bakht Balí. This year was signalized by the outbreak known as the Bundelá insurrection. Jawáhir Sinh of Chandrapur being sued on account of decrees of the Civil Court, broke into open rebellion, and burned and plundered the towns of Khimlása, Kurái, Naraolí, Dhámoní, and Bináiká. On hearing this, Delan Sá, a Gond chief living in the south of the District, also rose, and plundered Deorí and the surrounding country. The insurrection was quelled in the following year, chiefly through the efforts of Captain Hamilton; and Lord Ellenborough broke up the administration of the Sagar and Narbada territories, and reorganized it on an entirely new footing. In 1857 occurred the great rebellion, which led to the downfall of the Rájás of Sháhgarh. In June, when the Mutiny began, the regiments stationed at Sagar were the 31st Native Infantry, commanded by Major Hampden, and the 42nd, commanded by Colonel Dalzell, with the 3rd Irregular Cavalry, and a few European gunners. The entire force was under the command of Brigadier Sage. On the 27th June, the officers, with the European artillery and residents of the station, by order of the Brigadier moved into the fort, taking all the arms they could collect, and the treasure from the District office. Shortly afterwards, the 42nd and the cavalry mutinied, and burned a good many houses, besides seizing all the treasure that had been left. The 31st, however, remained loyal, and made a demonstration against the mutineers, many of whom made off towards Sháhgarh. When the news of the rising got abroad, Mardan Sinh, Rájá of Bhánpur, took possession of the present Subdivision of Kurái; Bakht Balí, the Rájá of Sháhgarh, seized Bandá, Rehlí, and Garhákota; and Adil Muhammad, Nawáb of Garhí Amápání, occupied Ráhatgarh. In fact, these three divided the whole District between them. For eight months, affairs remained in this state; and while the fort and town of Sagar were held by the Europeans, the whole surrounding country was in possession of the rebels. The latter never attacked the fort, and three engagements with the English forces at Sagar proved indecisive. At length, in February 1858, Sir Hugh Rose arrived with the Central India Field Force at Ráhatgarh, where, after totally defeating Adil Muhammad, he took and partially destroyed the fort. He next defeated the troops of Mardan Sinh at Barodiá Naunagar, and having cleared the country round Ráhatgarh and Kurái, marched to Sagar. Sir

Hugh Rose then advanced to Garhákota, where he routed the followers of the Rájá of Sháhgarh, and seized the fort, in which the rebels had left a large quantity of treasure. Soon after, he met the remainder of Bakht Balí's forces at Madanpur, and defeated them with great slaughter. By the beginning of March 1858, order was re-established throughout the District. The dominions of the Rájá of Sháhgarh were confiscated, and a portion of them added to the District of Ságár. Bakht Balí gave himself up, under the amnesty, at Maraurá, and was sent as a State prisoner to Lahore.

Population.—A rough enumeration in 1866 returned the population of Ságár at 498,642. The more careful Census of 1872 disclosed 527,725. The latest estimate of 1877 indicates a total of 554,644. The Census of 1872 still remains, however, the only basis for a detailed examination of the people. It disclosed a population of 527,725 persons, on an area of 4005 square miles, residing in 1858 villages or townships and 98,777 houses; persons per square mile, 131.77; villages per square mile, 0.46; houses per square mile, 24.66; persons per village, 284.03; persons per house, 5.35. Classified according to sex—males, 278,351, and females, 249,374. According to age, the male children in 1877 numbered 99,486; the female children, 88,583. Ethnical division, 1877—Europeans, 891; Eurasians, 100; aboriginal tribes, 25,699; Hindus, 486,080; Muhammadans, 24,742; Buddhists and Jains, 16,739. Thus the aboriginal tribes constitute only 4.63 per cent. of the total population, a proportion smaller than in any other District of the Central Provinces. They consist almost entirely of Gonds, 24,217 in 1872. Among the Hindus, the Bráhmans in that year numbered 43,787; the mass of the Hindu population consisting of Chamárs (58,851), Lodhís (42,542), Kachnís (40,156), Ahírs or Gaulís (34,545), Kurmís (23,640), and other cultivating or inferior castes. Native Christians in 1877, 393. The best cultivators are the Kurmís, who immigrated from the Doáb about the beginning of the 17th century, and the Lodhís, who made their way to the Vindhya tableland during the time of Aurangzeb. Though not tall, the inhabitants of Ságár are for the most part a sturdy race. The simple white cloth made in the country forms the dress in the hot season of the poorer classes. In the cold weather, they wear a thick cotton-padded coat, reaching below the knees. The favourite colour is the green *mahuá*, more particularly in the north of the District bordering on Bundelkhand, where green is regarded as the national colour. Cloth dyed with *ál* or madder is also much worn, especially by females. In the south, the population are peaceful and tractable; but towards the north, their character undergoes a change for the worse; and the Kohris, a small caste dwelling on the borders near Native States, where they find protection if pressed by the police, share with another caste called Khangars a notoriety for

crime. The increase of the population between 1866 and 1872 is partly due to immigration from Damoh, which followed the famine of 1869. No explanation, however, can be given of the fact that Sagar contains nearly as many Buddhists and Jains as all the rest of the Central Provinces together. The prevailing language is Hindí, but Urdu is also spoken. There are only 2 towns in Sagar District with a population exceeding 5000, viz. SAGAR, the headquarters of the District (pop. 45,655), and GARHAKOTA, 9085. Townships with from 1000 to 5000 inhabitants number 57; from 200 to 1000 inhabitants, 705; villages with fewer than 200 inhabitants, 1094. Of the municipalities, SAGAR (pop. within municipal limits, 48,461) had an income during the year 1876-77 of £3233, of which £2883 was derived from taxation, being 1s. 2d. per head; and Garhákota (9640) had an income of £948, of which £387 was derived from taxation, being 9½d. per head. The smaller municipalities of KURAI, REHLI, and DEORI, with a total population of 14,178, had an aggregate income of £1560, of which £1113 was derived from taxation.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 4005 square miles, only 1222 are cultivated, and of the portion lying waste, 1554 are returned as cultivable; 4507 acres are irrigated, entirely by private enterprise. The Government assessment is at the rate of 1s. 1½d. per acre of cultivated land, or 7½d. on the cultivable land. Wheat forms the staple crop of the District, and was grown in 1876 on 441,002 acres. Other food grains occupied 209,109 acres; while 64,265 were devoted to oil-seeds, 28,384 to cotton, 15,772 to rice, and 4052 to sugar-cane. Cattle and buffaloes are bred to a large extent in the District, both for draught and carriage, and also for dairy purposes, especially the manufacture of *ghí*; and lately some bulls have been imported from Hissár and Mysore, to improve the indigenous breed. The stock of sheep is small, and insufficient even for home consumption. The Chamárs and Gonds eat flesh when they can get it, and are not particular about its condition. Wheat, barley, and *dál* form the food of the richer inhabitants; the poorer classes content themselves with *bájra*, *kodo*, *kutkí*, and often in seasons of scarcity subsist on the *mahua* and other jungle fruits. The Census of 1872 showed a total of 6927 proprietors, of whom 2783 were classed as 'inferior.' The tenants numbered 51,862, of whom 17,423 had either absolute or occupancy rights, while 34,439 were tenants-at-will. The rent rates per acre for the different qualities of land in 1876 are returned as follows:—Land suited for wheat, 3s.; inferior grain, 1s. 6d.; oil-seeds, 2s. 1½d.; cotton, 2s. 9d.; rice, 4s.; sugar-cane, 8s. 3d. The ordinary prices of produce per cwt. were as follows:—Wheat, 4s. 3d.; linseed, 7s. 8d.; cotton, 46s.; rice, 7s.; sugar (*gúr*), 13s. 4d. The wages per diem for skilled labour averaged 9d.; for unskilled labour, 3d.

Commerce and Trade.—Ságar is not the seat of any important manufacture. Large cattle fairs are held weekly at Kurái, and once a year at Garhákota. The other principal fairs take place at Bhápel, Pandalpur, and Rangr. The iron-ore, smelted near Hirápur, goes principally to Cawnpore; but the chief export of the District consists of grain supplied to the markets of Bhopál, Gwalior, and Bundelkhand. Principal imports—sugar and *kirána*, or grocery, from Mírzápur; and English cloth and piece-goods from Mírzápur, and from Bombay by way of Hoshangábád. The town of Ságar is the entrepôt of the salt trade with Rájputana. The salt is brought by Banjáras from the Pachbhadra salt marshes in Jodhpur and from the salt lake at SAMBHAR, and is exported by the Ságar merchants to Jabalpur, Rewah, Narsinhpur, and Bundelkhand. In 1877, 50 miles of made roads within the District were returned as of the 'first' class, 63 of the 'second,' and 21 of the 'third' class. The main lines of communication are—the road from Jabalpur to Ságar, and thence *viâ* Ráhatgarh towards Indore, with travellers' bungalows at Ságar and Ráhatgarh; the road from Gwalior *viâ* Jhání and Lálitpur to Ságar, and thence towards Narsinhpur, with a travellers' bungalow at Málthon; the road from Ságar in a north-easterly direction towards Cawnpore, with a travellers' bungalow at Sháhgarh; and the road from Ságar in a north-westerly direction to Sironj in Sindhia's territory, and Mhow *viâ* Kurái. None of these roads is bridged and metalled throughout. A road to connect Ságar with the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, having Karelí as its terminus, and crossing the Narbáda (Nerbudda) at the Birmán Ghat, is still under construction. The District has no means of communication by water.

Administration.—In 1861, Ságar was formed into a separate District of the British Government of the Central Provinces. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with Assistants and *tahsildárs*. Total revenue in 1876-77, £69,196, of which the land yielded £44,060. Total cost of District officials and police of all kinds, £6416: number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts within the District, 9; magistrates, 16: maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 28 miles; average distance, 26 miles: number of police, 598, being 1 policeman to every 5·4 square miles and every 706 inhabitants. The daily average number of convicts in jail in 1876 was 183, of which 23 were females. The total cost of the jails in that year was £1052. The number of Government or aided schools in the District under Government inspection was 88, attended by 4657 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—Through the greater part of the District the climate is considered moderate. Average temperature in the shade in 1876 at the civil station—May, highest reading 110° F., lowest, 76° F.; July, highest 103° F., lowest 69° F.; December, highest 83° F., lowest 51° F. The rainfall was an average one, between 49 and 50 inches.

Storms are rarely of such severity as to injure the crops. The prevalent disease of the District is an intermittent fever, which comes on after the rains, especially during the month of October. Bowel complaints also cause many deaths. In 1876, nine charitable dispensaries afforded medical relief to 30,247 in-door and out-door patients. The reported death-rate amounted to 33·59 per thousand of the population.

Ságar (*Saugor*).—The central *tahsil* or Subdivision of Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces, lying between $23^{\circ} 5'$ and $23^{\circ} 56'$ N. lat., and between $78^{\circ} 37'$ and $79^{\circ} 21'$ E. long. Pop. (1872), 190,980; area, 1067 square miles; number of villages or townships, 501, and of houses, 34,748.

Ságar (*Saugor*).—Principal town and headquarters of Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces. Lat. $23^{\circ} 49' 50''$ N., long. $78^{\circ} 48' 45''$ E.; pop. (1872), 45,655. Ságar stands 1940 feet above sea level, on the n.w. borders of a fine lake nearly a mile broad, from which it derives its name. The lake is said to be an ancient Banjárá work, but the present city is only about two centuries old, and owes its rise to a Bundelá Rájá, who built a small fort on the site of the present structure in 1660 A.D., and founded a village called Parkotá, now a quarter of the modern town. Ságar was next held by Chhatar Sál, and formed part of the territory left by him on his death to his ally the Peshwá. Govind Pandit was appointed by the Peshwá to administer the country; and his descendants continued to manage it till shortly before it was ceded to the British Government by Peshwá Bájí Ráo in 1818. During this period, the town was twice plundered by the Nawáb of Tonk and his army, and again by Sindhia in 1804. During the Mutiny of 1857, the town and fort were held by the English for eight months, during which the whole of the surrounding country was in possession of the rebels, until the arrival of Sir Hugh Rose. The town is well built, with wide streets; and the large bathing *gháts* on the banks of the lake, for the most part surrounded with Hindu temples, add much to its appearance. Ságar is the entrepôt of the salt trade with Rájputána, and carries on a large trade with Mírzápur, importing sugar and *kirána*, or grocery, besides English cloth. The existing fort was completed by the Marhattás about a century ago. It stands on a height north-west of the lake, commanding the whole of the city and surrounding country, and consists of 20 round towers, varying from 20 to 40 feet in height, connected by thick curtain walls. It encloses a space of 6 acres, for the most part covered with old Marhattá buildings two storeys high. The British Government have constructed a magazine, a large building now used for medical stores, and a barrack for the European guard. The only entrance is on the east side. In 1820, a large building was erected for a mint, about a mile east of the lake, where 400 men were employed in coining; but after ten or twelve years, the business was

transferred to Calcutta. The building is now used as the office of the Customs Department. Other edifices of importance are a large castellated jail, capable of containing 500 prisoners, situated about half a mile east of the lake, and built in 1846 at a cost of £5000; the Deputy Commissioner's Court, on a hill overlooking the city and lake, built about 1820; the Sessions Court-house, a little to the north, built in 1863 at a cost of £500; and the city *kotwāli* or station-house, under the western walls of the fort, built in 1856. Sagar has a high school, now affiliated to the Calcutta University, established about 1828 by Captain James Paton, of the Bengal Artillery, with the assistance of Rāo Krishna Rāo, a Marhattā gentleman, and a vernacular middle-class school; several indigenous schools, and a girls' school. In 1862, an unhealthy swamp lying north-east of the lake, which cut off the quarter called Gopālganj from the rest of the city, was converted into a large garden, with numerous drives and a piece of ornamental water, at a cost of £3000. The civil station begins with the mint, about a mile east of the lake, and extends northwards for a mile, till joined by the military cantonments, which extend in a north-easterly direction for $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles, with the church in the centre. Before the Mutiny, the cantonments were exclusively garrisoned by Native troops, with a detail of European artillery. Since then, however, a European regiment and two batteries of European artillery, with a Native regiment of cavalry and one of infantry, have been stationed at Sagar. The fort contains a large magazine, and depôt of medical stores.

Sagar (Saugor).—Island at the mouth of the Húglí river, Bengal. Lat. $21^{\circ} 35' 30''$ to $21^{\circ} 56' 30''$ N., long. $88^{\circ} 4' 30''$ to $88^{\circ} 14'$ E. A great fair is held on the island in the beginning of January, to which an immense gathering of pilgrims from all parts of India, but especially from Bengal, resort to wash away their sins in the waters of the holy stream. The religious ceremonies last for three days, but the fair is continued for a longer period; and an extensive trade is carried on in articles brought from Calcutta, mats from Eastern Bengal, and stone-ware platters and cups principally from Chutiá Nágpur. At other times the island is very sparsely inhabited, though it is said to have been once well peopled. A writer in the *Calcutta Review* even asserts that 'two years before the foundation of Calcutta it contained a population of 200,000 persons, who in one night, in 1688, were swept away by an inundation.' Sagar Island is now covered with dense jungle, and infested by tigers and other wild beasts. Many attempts have been made to cultivate it, but with small success. The Board of Revenue tried in 1813 to lease it to natives, but the attempt failed, and the island was subsequently taken over by an association composed of Europeans and natives, rent free for thirty years, and at a quit-rent of 1s. 6d. per acre thereafter. Previous to this, the island had been surveyed (1812) and

found to contain 143,265 acres of dry land. Sub-leases were afterwards granted to several persons, but their efforts to clear the land were ineffectual. Salt manufacture was conducted on the island for some time, but has been discontinued. The only building of any importance in Sagar Island—except the temple dedicated to Kapilmuni, to which the pilgrims repair on the occasion of the great bathing festival—is the lighthouse, which was commenced in 1808. The Meteorological Department has an observatory at the telegraph station on the south-west extremity of the island. The telegraph station lies below high-water mark, and is protected by a strong dike. The average rainfall for the four years ending 1871 was 87·61 inches. The cyclone of 1864 caused enormous destruction and loss of life on Sagar Island. The storm wave, 11 feet above the level of the land, swept over the island with resistless force. At first it was reported that 90 per cent. of the population had perished, but it was afterwards ascertained that 1488 persons survived on the island out of a population, before the cyclone, of 5625.

Sagar.—*Taluk* in Shimoga District, Mysore. Area, 621 square miles, of which 47 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 60,231, of whom 54,917 were Hindus, 1671 Muhammadans, 3542 Jains, and 101 Christians. Land revenue (1874-75), £14,800, or 10s. 2d. per cultivated acre. This *taluk* occupies the most westerly portion of Mysore, broken by the spurs of the Ghâts, and in parts only 8 miles distant from the sea. A great part of the area is overgrown with heavy timber-trees, interspersed with grassy glades, amid which wander herds of bison and wild elephant. Products—areca-nut, rice, pepper, and cardamoms.

Sagar.—Municipal town in Shimoga District, Mysore; situated in lat. 14° 9' 50" N., and long. 75° 4' 20" E., on the left bank of the Varada river, 40 miles west-north-west of Shimoga town. Headquarters of the *taluk* of the same name. Pop. (1871), 1740; municipal revenue (1874-75), £328; rate of taxation, 3s. 9d. per head. A centre of the areca-nut trade, and the residence of some wealthy merchants. Areca-nut, pepper, sandal-wood, and products of the highlands are exchanged for cotton cloth and other articles from the seaboard.

Sagri.—*Tahsil* of Azamgarh District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the south bank of the river Gogra. Area, 451 square miles, of which 216 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 249,552; land revenue, £24,946; total Government revenue, £27,457; rental paid by cultivators, £63,807.

Sagrwha.—Town in Champáran District, Bengal. Pop. (1872), 5643.

Saháranpur.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 29° 34' 45" and 30° 21' 20" N. lat., and between 77° 9' and 78° 14' 45" E. long. Area, 2219

square miles; population in 1872, 884,017 souls. Saháranpur is a District in the Meerut (Míráth) Division. It is bounded on the north by the Siwálík Hills, which separate it from Dehra Dún; on the east by the Ganges; on the south by the District of Muzaffarnagar; and on the west by the river Jumna (Jamuná). The administrative headquarters are at SAHARANPUR CITY.

Physical Aspects.—Saháranpur forms the most northerly portion of the Doáb or alluvial tableland which stretches between the valleys of the Ganges and the Jumna. The Siwálík Hills rise above it on the northern frontier. Their slopes are rugged and abrupt, pierced by numerous passes, many of whose gorges have never yet been explored, and crowned by jagged summits which often assume the most fantastic shapes. At their base stretches a wild submontane tract, overgrown with forest or jungle, and intersected by innumerable mountain torrents, which leap foaming down from the hills on their way to join the great channels of the Jumna and the Ganges. The two main arterial streams themselves descend into the plain through wild and magnificent ravines, which rapidly give way to high banks of clay, as the rivers pass from the mountain region into the level tableland below. South of the intermediate forest belt lies the general plain of the Doáb, an elevated upland tract, in whose friable soil the great rivers have cut themselves wide and shifting courses, at a depth of some 60 feet below the general surface. The broad valleys thus excavated are naturally well watered and fertile; but the great central plateau lies high and dry, with a general elevation of 900 feet above the sea, while numberless small ravines drain off its scanty moisture towards the low land on either side. The highest cultivation has, nevertheless, been rendered possible throughout the District by two splendid engineering achievements, the Ganges and the Eastern Jumna Canals (*qq. v.*), both of which take their origin within the boundaries of Saháranpur. The latter work was originally planned and in part executed by Alí Mardan Khán, the celebrated minister of Sháh Jahán, but it was not finally completed till the year 1830. The difficulties attending the upper part seem to have been beyond the resources of Musalmán engineering, and the canal is believed to have never flowed beyond one season until its reconstruction by the British under Sir P. Cautley, R.E. Colonel Colvin believes that 'the task of maintaining the passage across the mountain torrents at its head was found to be so great, that the canal was abandoned (by its native projectors) almost as soon as formed, and that the repeated attempts at reparation afterwards were only efficient for a season, and were overcome by the increasing difficulties.' The Eastern Jumna canal, as it now exists, is entirely a work of British engineering. The Ganges Canal was opened in 1855. Both these canals run through the whole length of the District, from north to south, and have

converted large portions of its central plateau into stretches of unbroken cultivation. The District is everywhere thickly studded with flourishing villages and populous towns. The waste lands are small in amount, except in the hilly northern region; and cultivation is spreading on every side, under the fostering influence of peaceful Government, and the successful issue of the irrigation schemes. The general aspect of the country is indicative of steady progress and comparative wealth, though the land is still capable of bearing a considerable increase of population without undue pressure on its resources.

History.—The portion of the Doáb in which Saháranpur is situated was probably one of the first regions of Upper India occupied by the Aryan colonists as they spread eastward from their original settlement in the Punjab. But the legends of the *Mahábhárata* centre around the city of Hastinapur, in the neighbouring District of MEERUT; and it is not till the 14th century of our era that we learn any historical details with regard to Saháranpur itself. The town was founded in the reign of Muhammad Tughlak, about the year 1340 A.D., and derived its name from a Musalmán saint, Sháh Haran Chishti, whose shrine is still an object of attraction to Muhammadan devotees. At the close of the century, we learn that the surrounding country was exposed to the ravages of Tímur, who passed through it on his return from the sack of Delhi, and subjected the Hindu inhabitants to all the usual horrors of a Mughal invasion. In the year 1414, the tract was conferred by Sultán Sayyid Khizr Khán on Sayyid Salím; and in 1526, Bábar marched across it on his way to Pánipat. A few Mughal colonies still trace their origin to his followers. A year later, the town of Gangoh was founded by the zealous missionary Abdul Kaddús, whose efforts were the means of converting to the faith of Islám many of his Rájput and Gújar neighbours. His descendants ruled the District until the reign of Akbar, and were very influential in strengthening the Musalmán element by their constant zeal in proselytizing. During the Augustan age of the Mughal Empire, Saháranpur was a favourite summer resort of the court and the nobles, who were attracted alike by the coolness of its climate and the facilities which it offered for sport. The famous empress Núr Mahál, the consort of Jahángír, had a palace in the village which still perpetuates her memory by its name of Núrnagar; and under Sháh Jahán, the royal hunting seat of Bádsháh Mahál was erected by Alí Mardan Khán, the projector of the Eastern Jumna Canal. Unhappily the canal was permitted to fall into disuse during the long and disastrous decline of the Mughal power, and it was never of much practical utility until the establishment of British rule. After the death of Aurangzeb, this region suffered, like the rest of Upper India, from the constant inroads of warlike tribes and the domestic feuds of its own princes. The first

incursion of the Sikhs took place in 1709, under the weakening hold of Bahádur Sháh; and for eight successive years their wild hordes kept pouring ceaselessly into the Doáb, repulsed time after time, yet ever returning in greater numbers, to massacre the hated Muhammadans and turn their territory into a wilderness. The Sikhs did not even confine their barbarities to their Musalmán foes, but murdered and pillaged the Hindu community with equal violence. In 1716, however, the Mughal court mustered strength enough to repel the invaders for a time; and it was not until the utter decay of all authority that the Sikhs once more appeared upon the scene. Meanwhile the Upper Doáb passed into the hands of the Sayyid brothers of Bárha, whose rule was more intimately connected with the neighbouring District of MUZAFFARNAGAR. On their fall in 1721, their possessions were conferred upon various favourites in turn, until in 1754 they were granted by Ahmad Sháh Duráni to Najíb Khán, a Rohillá leader, as a reward for his services at the battle of Kotila. This energetic ruler made the best of his advantages, and before his death (1770), had extended his dominions to the north of the Siwálíks on one side, and as far south as Meerut on the other. But the end of his rule was disturbed by incursions of the two great aggressive races from opposite quarters, the Sikhs and the Marhattás. Najíb Khán handed down his authority to his son, Zábíta Khán, who at first revolted from the feeble court of Delhi; but on being conquered by Marhattá aid, was glad to receive back his fief through the kind offices of his former enemies, then supreme in the councils of the Empire. During the remainder of his life, Zábíta Khán was continually engaged in repelling the attacks of the Sikhs, who could never forgive him for his reconciliation with the imperial party. Under his son, Ghulám Kádir (1785), the District enjoyed comparative tranquillity. The Sikhs were firmly held in check, and a strong government was established over the native chieftains. But upon the death of its last Rohillá prince, who was mutilated and killed by Sindhia in 1788, the country fell into the hands of the Marhattás, and remained in their possession until the British conquest. Their rule was very precarious, owing to the perpetual raids made by the Sikhs; and they were at one time compelled to call in the aid of George Thomas, the daring military adventurer who afterwards established an independent government in Hariána. Indeed, the internal quarrels of this confused period are too complicated for brief narration, and it must suffice to say that the country remained practically in the hands of the Sikhs, who levied black-mail under the pretence of collecting revenue. After the fall of ALIGARH and the capture of Delhi (1803), a British force was despatched to reduce Saháranpur. Here, for a time, a double warfare was kept up against the Marhattás on one side and the Sikhs on the other. The latter were defeated in the indecisive battle of Charáon (24th November

1804), but still continued their irregular raids for some years. Organization, however, was quietly pushed forward, and the District enjoyed a short season of comparative tranquillity, until the death of the largest landowner, Rám Dáyál Sinh, in 1813. The resumption of his immense estates gave rise to a Gújar revolt, which was put down before it had assumed very serious dimensions. A more dangerous disturbance took place in 1824; a confederacy on a large scale was planned among the native chiefs, and a rising of the whole Doáb might have occurred had not the premature eagerness of the rebels disclosed their design. As it was, the revolt was only suppressed by a sanguinary battle, which ended in the total defeat of the insurgents and the fall of their ringleaders. From that period till the Mutiny, no events of importance disturbed the quiet course of civil administration in Saháranpur. News of the rising at MEERUT was received early in May 1857, and the European women and children were immediately despatched to the hills. Measures were taken for the defence of the officers, and a garrison of European civil servants established themselves in the Magistrate's house. The District soon broke out into irregular rebellion; but the turbulent spirit was shown rather in the form of internecine quarrels amongst the native leaders than of any settled opposition to British government. Old feuds sprang up anew; villages returned to their ancient enmities; bankers were robbed, and money-lenders pillaged; yet the local officers continued to exercise many of their functions, and to punish the chief offenders by ordinary legal process. On the 2nd of June, a portion of the Native infantry at Saháranpur mutinied and fired upon their officers, but without effect. Shortly after, a small body of Gúrkhas arrived, by whose assistance order was partially restored. As early as December 1857, it was found practicable to proceed with the regular assessment of the District, and the natives appeared to be civil and respectful. In fact, the mutiny in Saháranpur was merely an outbreak of the old predatory anarchy, which had not yet been extirpated by our industrial *régime*, and there was little indication of any popular aversion to British rule.

Population.—The earliest Census, which gives the population of the District with its present area, was that of 1853; the number of inhabitants then amounted to 801,325, or 370 to the square mile. By 1865, the population had increased to 869,176, or 389 to the square mile. In 1872, the enumeration disclosed a further increase to 884,017 persons, or 399 to the square mile. At the same date, there were 1736 villages, or an average of 0·8 village to the square mile and 509 inhabitants to each village. The native population was thus classified according to sex—males, 484,508; females, 399,274: proportion of males, 54·8 per cent. The preponderance of males is chiefly due to the former prevalence of infanticide, a practice which all the vigilance of

the Government has not yet been able entirely to check. Classified according to age, there were, under 15 years—males, 200,078; females, 154,103; total children, 354,181, or 42·32 per cent. In the religious division of the people, 604,422 were returned as Hindus, and 279,015 as Musalmáns; there is thus about one Muhammadan to every two Hindus, the exact percentages being 31·6 and .68·4 respectively; Christians and 'others' numbered 345. Amongst the Hindus, the Census of 1872 returns 45,148 as Bráhmans. The Rájputs are reckoned at 27,420, of whom only 10,564 are females. They are suspected of infanticide, and in many villages the provisions of the Infanticide Act are strictly enforced. In physique, the Rájputs are a fine hardy race, but their lawless and turbulent spirit has given much trouble. The Banias or trading classes were returned at 36,694, amongst whom the Agarwálas form by far the largest subdivision. But the great mass of the population belongs to the classes enumerated in the Census returns as 'other castes.' Of these, there were 495,160 persons in 1872. The most numerous of them were the Chamárs, reckoned at 158,859. Next in number come the Gújars, a race of supposed Tartar origin, almost peculiar to the northern Doáb, who are returned at 53,576. They are a turbulent race, addicted to cattle-lifting. The Musalmáns are partly descendants of the various early invaders, partly native converts from Hinduism. Amongst the former, the Sayyids, Mughals, and Patháns are the most numerous. Those of Hindu origin still retain many of their old practices and prejudices, while their trade-classes are assuming the rigid character of castes. The religious opinions of the people have been much shaken by the influences of civilisation, but Christianity has made little progress amongst them, nor does the faith of Islám now gain many converts. There were 9 towns at the last Census with a population (1872) exceeding 5000, namely—LANDHAURA, 5118; AMBAHTA, 6336; RURKI, 7588; RAMPUR, 8464; JAWALAPUR, 9665; MANGLAUR, 10,206; GANGOH, 10,899; DEOBAND, 21,714; and SAHARANPUR, 44,119. The total urban population accordingly amounted in 1872 to 124,099. HARDWAR, on the Ganges, is a place of great sanctity, and is largely frequented for the bathing festivals. In 1872, 312,846 persons were returned as engaged in agriculture, and 570,936 as otherwise employed. The language in ordinary use is Urdu.

Agriculture.—The *rabi* or spring harvest is sown in October, and reaped in March; and the *kharif* or rain harvest is sown in June, and gathered in October. The chief spring products are wheat and barley (284,309 acres in 1872), pulses (59,055 acres), and oil-seeds (49,064 acres). The staples of the rain crops are rice (86,731 acres), *jodr* and *bájra* (71,447 acres), and vegetables. The cultivation of cotton was carried on very largely during the prevalence of high prices caused by

the American war; but in 1872, the area under cotton had shrunk to 46,178 acres. Indigo, on the contrary, has been grown in greater quantities since the introduction of canal irrigation has rendered its out-turn less precarious than formerly. Cereals are, however, the principal products of the total cultivated area. The irrigation system of the District is very fully developed, chiefly through the agency of the two great canals. In 1870, out of a total cultivated area amounting to 736,873 acres, 162,317 acres were irrigated; and of these, 84,404 acres, or more than one-half, were watered from canals alone. The condition of the peasantry is comfortable; but many of the Musalmán proprietors, in their disdain of personal toil, have carried subdivision of shares to such an excess that they have sunk into a position more impecunious than that of the labouring class. Until lately, the non-proprietary cultivators held their lands by customary tenure, at low fixed rates, which were not liable to enhancement; but the *zamindárs* have now begun to exercise their legal right of raising the rent, and the labourers are fast losing their customary privileges. Rents are still to a great extent payable in kind; in 1870, 66 per cent. of the tenants paid in cash. The best lands bring in from 10s. 6d. to 12s. an acre, the poorest are let at from 3s. 9d. to 4s. 6d.; average rates, from 7s. 6d. to 9s. Many estates have been transferred to new proprietors since the Mutiny; and, unfortunately, in a large number of cases they have fallen into the hands of money-lenders, who are usually absentees, and make very indifferent landlords. Wages have risen about 60 per cent. during the past ten years, owing to the large demand for labour on the canals and railway and at the Rúrki workshops. In 1874, bricklayers and carpenters received from 7½d. to 9d. per diem; blacksmiths, 7½d.; common labourers, from 2½d. to 3d. The ordinary prices of food grains in 1870 were as follows:—Wheat, 17 *sers* the rupee, or 6s. 7d. per cwt.; barley, 25 *sers* the rupee, or 4s. 5¾d. per cwt.; *joár*, 30 *sers* the rupee, or 3s. 8¾d. per cwt.; gram, 20½ *sers* the rupee, or 5s. 5¾d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—The capricious rainfall in the mountain tract to the north often causes sudden floods on the Ganges and the Jumna, yet inundations of importance seldom occur. Villages, however, are sometimes transferred from one bank to the other by shifting of the channel, as many as 330 being liable to fluvial action in some one or other of its forms. Drought visits the District with great severity; famines due to this cause having occurred in 1837, in 1860, and in 1868-69. On the last occasion, almost all the autumn crops were lost, except in the irrigated region, the area of which exceptionally increased by 40,995 acres. In July and August 1869, the price of *joár* and *bájra* rose as high as 8 *sers* the rupee, or 14s. per cwt. Relief measures were undertaken early in that year, and for 77 days an average of 2948 persons were employed upon famine works, while 161 persons received

gratuitous aid at poorhouses. These figures show that the distress was not nearly so severe as in neighbouring Districts. The opening of the Sind Punjab and Delhi Railway, during the scarcity, contributed to allay the danger of starvation. The spread of irrigation has done much to secure Saháranpur from the extremity of famine in future years; while, as regards communications, it compares favourably with any District in the North-Western Provinces.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The commerce of Saháranpur is chiefly confined to its raw materials, and especially to food grains, in which it possesses a thriving and increasing trade. Its manufactures consist of coarse cloth, jewellery, and sweetmeats. The Rúrki workshops, under Government control, employ 1069 hands, and brought in a net revenue of £5960 in 1870. Among the articles produced are steam-engines, pumps, printing presses, lathes, and mathematical instruments. Besides its direct value as a source of income, this establishment is of great importance as a training school for native artisans. The Thomason Civil Engineering College, also situated at Rúrki, is a most useful institution; in 1871, no fewer than 112 students qualified for the public service. A botanical garden was established at the town of Saháranpur in 1817, and has proved eminently successful, both from a scientific point of view and in the practical work of naturalizing useful plants and trees, especially tea and cinchona. The District is well supplied with means of communication. The grand trunk line of the Delhi and Punjab Railway runs for a distance of 41 miles within its boundaries, with stations at Deoband, Saháranpur, and Sarsáwa. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway will form a junction with the Punjab line at Saháranpur. There are also several excellent metalled roads, one of which leads by a tunnelled passage to Dehra. Much traffic passes by the Ganges Canal. The Thomason College contains an English printing press, and there is one native lithographic press in the District.

Administration.—In 1806, the land revenue amounted to £33,522; in 1850, it had risen to £105,844; and in 1872, it had reached the sum of £117,295. The increase is due in part to the benefits derived from canal irrigation. The other principal items of revenue are stamps, excise, income tax, and canal dues. The District is under the civil jurisdiction of the *munsifs* of Saháranpur and Deoband, from both of whom appeals lie to the Judge of Saháranpur. In 1874, there were 10 stipendiary and 3 honorary magistrates, most of whom were also charged with fiscal duties. The District contained 10 civil and 4 magisterial courts in 1870. The regular police in 1873 numbered 843 officers and men, or 1 policeman to every 2·64 square miles and every 1048 inhabitants. The cost was £9537, of which sum £7139 were defrayed from provincial revenue. The regular force was supplemented by 1624 village watchmen (*chaukidárs*), or 1 to every 447 inhabitants.

In the same year, 1483 persons were convicted for all offences, being 1 person in every 595 of the population. Saháranpur contains one jail, the average daily number of prisoners in which was 216 in 1870, or 0·025 per cent. of the population. The Muhammadan prisoners numbered 231, and the Hindus, 447. The cost per inmate was £4, 12s. 5½d., and the average earnings of each prisoner were 14s. 2¾d. Education has been spreading slowly of late years. In 1860, there were 399 schools, with 5639 pupils, taught at a cost of £1559. In 1871, the number of schools had fallen to 381; but these had a total roll of 7934 children, while the sum expended on education had risen to £3674. There is an excellent school in connection with the American Presbyterian Mission, and the towns of Deoband and Saháranpur are noted for their superior Arabic and Persian schools. The District is divided into 4 *tahsils* and 15 *parganás*, which contained 1916 estates in 1872, owned by 3875 registered proprietors or coparceners. Each estate paid an average revenue of £61, 4s., and each proprietor an average of £30, 4s. The District contains three municipalities, SAHARANPUR, DEOBAND, and HARDWAR Union. In 1875-76, their aggregate revenue amounted to £10,648, and their expenditure to £9584. The average incidence of municipal taxation was 1s. 8½d. per head of their population.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Saháranpur is the same as that of the Doáb generally, modified by its northern position and the cool breezes from the neighbouring hill country. The cold weather arrives earlier and lasts longer than in the lower Districts, but the summer months are tropical in their excessive heat. The mean temperature in 1872 was as follows:—January, 57° F.; February, 59° F.; March, 73° F.; April, 81°; May, 88° F.; June, 90° F.; July, 83° F.; August, 83° F.; September, 81° F.; October, 75° F.; November, 66° F.; December, 59° F. The total rainfall was 49·4 inches in 1867-68; 20·2 inches in 1868-69 (the year of scarcity); 21·6 in 1869-70; and 40·1 in 1870-71. Fever and small-pox are the principal diseases of the District. The reported death-rate in 1873 was 23·81 per thousand.

Saháranpur.—North-western *tahsil* of Saháranpur District, North-Western Provinces, lying between the Siwálik Hills and the river Jumna (Jamuná); watered by the Eastern Jumna Canal, and traversed by the Sind Punjab and Delhi Railway. Area, 618 square miles, of which 328 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 253,371; land revenue, £33,151; total Government revenue, £36,565; rental paid by cultivators, £53,924.

Saháranpur.—Municipal city and administrative headquarters of Saháranpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 29° 58' 15" N., and long. 77° 35' 15" E., on a low site on both sides of the Damaula Nadí. Pop. (1872), 43,844, consisting of 19,528 Hindus,

24,296 Muhammadans, and 20 Christians and 'others.' Station on the Sind Punjab and Delhi Railway. Well-built town, with many brick houses. The principal market-place is a busy spot. Mission of the American Presbyterian Church. Important Government botanical gardens, which have proved useful in promoting the acclimatization of valuable plants. Dispensary, schools, post office, telegraph office, jail, police station. Headquarters of Jumna Canal establishment. Old Rohillá fort, used as a court-house. Handsome new mosque, lately erected by the Muhammadan community, who form a very influential body, and include several Wahábís. English church, consecrated 1858. Hotel and travellers' bungalow near the railway station. Point of departure from rail for passengers to Mussooree (Masúri), who crowd the town at the beginning and end of the hot season. Principal station in the trigonometrical survey of the Himálayas. Elevation above sea level, 902 feet. Malarious diseases prevail, owing to the neighbourhood of a swamp; but draining operations conducted in 1870 have greatly lessened the evil. Considerable trade in grain, sugar, molasses, and country cloth. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £5486; from taxes, £4867, or 2s. 1½d. per head of population (45,051) within municipal limits.

Saháspur (*Sahispur*).—Town in Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 29° 7' 40" N., and long. 78° 40' 15" E., on the Moradábád and Hardwár road, 28 miles south-east of Bijnaur town. Pop. (1872), 6309.

Saháswán.—*Tahsil* and town in Budáun District, North-Western Provinces.—See SAHISWAN.

Saháwar.—Town in Etah District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 5156, consisting of 2579 Hindús and 2577 Muhammadans. Police station, school, post office. Founded by Rájá Naurang Deb, a Chauhán Rájput, who called it Naurangábád after his own name. On being attacked by the Musalmáns, the Rájá fled to Sirhpura, and the inhabitants who remained were forcibly converted to Islám. Shortly after, Naurang, assisted by the Rájá and people of Sirhpura, expelled the Musalmáns, and changed the name of the town to Saháwar. The place is now far from flourishing; small local *bázár*, bad communications. Tomb of Faj-ud-dín, a *fakír*, forms the only object of interest. Local income in 1873-74, £95.

Sahet Mahet (or *Srávasti*).—A vast collection of ruins in Gonda District, Oudh; situated in lat. 27° 31' N., and long. 82° 5' E., on the south bank of the Rápti river, 10 miles from Balrámpur, and 6 from Ikauna. These ruins have been identified by General Cunningham as the remains of the ancient city of Srávasti, whose site had been conjecturally fixed by Lassen within a few miles of the spot, but on the opposite bank of the river. The following account of these

interesting ruins is quoted from an account by Mr. W. C. Benett, C.S., in the *Oudh Gazetteer*, pp. 281-286. It is not necessary to agree with all Mr. Benett's dates and statements, in order to appreciate his work. See also General Cunningham's *Geography of Ancient India*, pp. 407-414 (ed. 1871).

'The foundation of the city is attributed to Srāvasta, an old king of the Solar race, the ninth in descent from Manu, at a time beside which the most ancient myths are comparatively modern. From him was derived the name Srāvasti, which appears in the Prākṛit forms Sāwattha, Sāwanta, and Shrāvanta, and has since been corrupted into Sahet. Though the words do not at first look alike, it is probable that the names of the river and the town, Sahet Mahet and Rāpti, were once the same, viz. Sharāvati, and derived from Savitri, the sun-god. At the mythical era of the *Rāmāyana*, Srāvasti was the capital of Uttar Kusāla, the northern province of Rāma's empire, which, on the division of the kingdom at the death of that hero, fell to the share of his son Lava. At the commencement of the historical age, in the 6th century before Christ, we find it still one of the six principal kingdoms of Madhyadesa or Central Hindustān. It was then bounded on the south by Saketa, or Ajodhya, and on the east by Vaishali, the modern Behar and Benares; so it probably contained at least the present Districts of Bahrāich, Gonda, Basti, and Gorakhpur. The king, Parasenāditya, who is given in the *Vishnu Purāna* as great-grandson of Buddha, and who was very probably connected in race with the princely prophet, was an early convert to the new faith, and invited its founder to the Kalandaka Vihāra in the Venuvana at Srāvasti. Here, or in Ajodhya, Buddha spent the greater number of the rainy seasons, during which he used to rest from his missionary labours; nor did he finally leave the place till he started on that journey to Bengal which ended in his attainment of *nirvāna*. During his lifetime, Sudatta, the prime minister, built the Jetavana, a magnificent monastery, whose ruins lie to the south-west of the capital. On the death of Parasenāditya, his son Virudhāka succeeded, and showed himself a bitter enemy to the faith; he crowned many acts of oppression by including 500 Buddhist virgins in his harem. For this it was predicted that on the seventh day he should be consumed by fire. To falsify the prophecy, he and his court spent the day in boats on the pond to the south of the city; but the waters fled back, the earth yawned, and the guilty monarch disappeared in a supernatural flame.

'From this time, Srāvasti remained one of the principal seats of Buddhist learning; and 12 centuries afterwards, the Chinese pilgrim collected with reverence the traditions of his faith which lingered round the sacred city. At the end of the 2nd century B.C., Rahulata, the sixteenth of the Buddhist patriarchs, died here after having imparted his

secret lore to the king's son, Sanghananadi ; and at the fourth Buddhist Synod, convened by the so-called Emperor Kanishka, the Jetavana furnished one of the three principal sects of Sthavíras or Buddhist doctors.

'The greatest political importance ever reached by this State was in the reign of Vikramáditya, who, in the middle of the 2nd century A.D., overthrew the mightiest king in India, the Ghaváhana of Kashmír ; and as ruler of a vast dominion stretching from Pesháwar to Málwá, and from Málwá to Bengal, assumed with some show of right the title of Emperor of Jambudirpa or the Indian continent. Contrary to the traditions of his capital, he was a bigoted adherent of the Bráhmancial religion ; and the legends connected with his rebuilding of the sacred places at Ajodhya and Debi Pátan show how low the fortunes of that creed had fallen in these parts when he lent it his powerful support. Both were a complete jungle, and he restored the localities of the birth of Ráma and of his passage to heaven by measurements from the *Rámáyana*. His identifications probably are the base of the topography of the present day. The remains of this monarch's tank and temple still exist at Debi Pátan. His death appears to have been followed by open disputes between the rival faiths ; and the story that a distinguished Buddhist, Vasubandhu, worsted the Bráhmans in argument, may refer to a more material victory, especially as we find that his still more distinguished predecessor, Man or Nita, had been worsted in argument by the Bráhmans under the Bráhman Vikramáditya.

'The Ajodhya tradition,' says Mr. Benett, 'preserves the correct story of the fall of this dynasty. It relates that after a glorious reign of eighty years, Vikramáditya was visited by a Jogi, Samudra Pál, who, after exhibiting several remarkable miracles, induced the monarch to allow his spirit to be temporarily transferred to a corpse. The royal body was no sooner vacant than Samudra Pál projected his own spirit into it, and refused to evacuate. By this disreputable trick, he obtained the throne of Ajodhya and Srávasti, which he and his descendants retained for 17 generations. The fact contained in this singular legend is that Samudra Gupta, who reigned for the first forty years of the 3rd century A.D., overthrew the local dynasty and himself reigned in their stead. The period of eighty years, as the duration of the rule of Vikramáditya and his descendants, is exceedingly probable ; and it is singular, though much weight cannot be attached to the coincidence, that from Samudra Gupta to Gayáditya, the last of the Aditya monarchs of Kanauj, there are exactly seventeen names of the great Vaisya Emperors who governed Northern India.

'The Chinese pilgrims did not, of course, omit to visit so sacred a city. Fa-Hian in the commencement of the 5th century found it inhabited by 200 poor families, and the grand building in decay ; and

150 years later, when Hiouen Tshang arrived, the desolation was complete, and only a few monks haunted the ruins.

‘It was destined, however, to recover for a while before it finally disappeared from history; and it is here that I must refer to its connection with the origin of a third religion, that of the Jains. The third of their Tirthankáras, Shambhú Náth, was born at Sávatthi; both his immediate predecessors and both successors were born at the neighbouring city of Ajodhya. There is still a small Jain temple dedicated to Sobhá Náth. I have no doubt that Sobhá Náth and Shambhú Náth, Sávatthi and Srávasti, are the same, and that this was the birthplace of the third Tirthankára. The eighth of these supernatural beings was born at Chandripur, and this place is always identified in local tradition with Sahet Mahet, as I shall have occasion to remark when I come to the *Mahábhārata* legend. Since the best authorities differ by about 1500 years as to the probable date of these patriarchs, and their very existence is a fair subject for doubt, I shall not venture to conjecture on their connection with the rise of a strong Jain kingdom in the 9th and 10th centuries. Of this dynasty little more is known than of that of Vikramá-ditya; one great victory throws them into the full light of history, and an interesting legend accounts for their downfall. Local tradition gives the following list of names:—(1) Máyura Dhwája; (2) Hansa Dhwája; (3) Makara Dhwája; (4) Sudhanya Dhwája; (5) Suhiral or Suhel Deo or Dal. These are diversely reputed to have been either Thárus, or of some Rájput house. Considering the almost certain origin of the modern Rájputs, the two accounts may both be true; but, as they were Jains, some confusion about their caste is easily intelligible. What is utterly baffling is that the second and fourth are the heroes of one of the episodes of the Drigvijáya section of the *Mahábhārata*. The only monarch who is really historical is the last, whose capital was at Srávasti, and who had a fort at Asokpur or Hatla or Raza, about half-way on the road between Gonda and Faizábád. The tradition connecting him with Dumhria Díh is clearly transferred from the recollections of the subsequent Dom dynasty. When Sálár Masáúd crossed the Gogra, he met Suhel Dal at Hatla, and the Jains were apparently defeated, though the place is still revered as the scene of the martyrdom of a distinguished Muhammadan officer. The invaders pushed to the north, and, if tradition is to be believed, fought another great battle under the walls of Sahet Mahet, which contains the tomb of another martyr. Finally, after a long occupation of the country, the decisive battle was fought at Bahráich, where the Musalmáns were completely exterminated. In the indecisive conflicts and prolonged encampment in a hostile country, in all, in fact, but its denouement, the story bears a strong resemblance to that of the Pathán conquest of Utraula in the time of Sultán Sher Sháh Súr. It is said that only about forty years after this victory the

Jain house fell. The last king, whose name is not given, was passionately devoted to the chase, and returned one evening just as the sun was setting. It would have been a sin to eat after sunset, and the queen, in order to secure the royal supper, sent up to the roof the exceedingly beautiful wife of his younger brother. The experiment succeeded, and the sun stayed to enjoy the sight as long as she stood there. When the feast was over, she descended, and the sun at once disappeared. The astonished king inquired the cause, and was determined to see with his own eyes the wonder-working beauty. His incestuous passion was punished by the ruin of his State, and amidst a terrific storm the whole city was turned bottom upwards. The modern name Sahet Mahet, says the legend, is descriptive of this inversion. This story is valuable as putting beyond reasonable doubt the first religion to which these kings belonged—the inability to eat after sunset, which is the point on which the whole turns, being derived from the Jain reluctance to sacrifice insect life.

‘The chronology is also not without its value, and I have no doubt points to the conquest of the country by the first of the great Rahtor kings of Kanauj, Śrī Chandradeva. In the last half of the 11th century, he made a pilgrimage to Ajodhya and Kusála (*i.e.* Gonda); and with a Kshattriya prince, pilgrimage is often another word for military expedition—‘*na Kshattriya ka bhagat na mīsal ka dhanuk*’—‘you cannot make a saint of a Kshattriya, or a bow of a rice pestle.’ An inscription of his descendant, the ill-starred Jái Chandra, has been found at Ajodhya.

‘With the Ghori conquest of India, the history of Sahet Mahet comes absolutely to an end, and it only remains for me to notice one more local legend. Everywhere in the neighbourhood, it is told that the real name of the city before its overthrow was Chandrikápuri or Chandripur; and that it was here that Hansa Dhwāja reigned, and Arjuna gained his very unheroic victory over the brave and beautiful Sudhania.

‘All that now remains of this once famous city is the great fortress on the banks of the Rápti, with a smaller ruin to the south-west, a lofty mound due south on the Balrámpur and Bahráich roads, and numerous small piles of bricks, probably the remains of ancient *stupas*, scattered here and there within a distance of 2 miles of the main city. The fortress is in shape a semicircular crescent, with the concave side facing the river, and is completely surrounded by solid brick walls, the highest remains being to the west, where the ruins of the river bastion are still 50 feet in height. The ordinary walls vary from a greatest elevation of 40 feet on the western front to a lowest of 20 feet along the east and south-east. The interior is covered with jungle, so dense in parts as hardly to admit of the passage of an elephant,

and broken into undulations by the remains of temples and palaces underneath. All the principal buildings were in the western half, and it is there that the undergrowth is the thickest, only ceasing along two or three broad streets which have been left bare, and indicate the chief features of the old city. The main street runs right through the centre, and is built so as to command a view of the great mound Orá Jhár from one end to the other. To the south it debouches by one of the principal gateways; and at the north it ends in a small square, containing among other lofty remains the two principal mounds, which may be identified with the Sudattás house and the Angulimati, a *stupa* mentioned by Hiouen Thsang. The dense brushwood, and the possibility that the city which he saw may have been considerably altered by the later Jain dynasty, renders the application of that traveller's descriptions a difficult and hazardous task; but I am inclined to conjecture that his palace of Parasenáditya was situated among the mounds of the south-eastern corner, where now stands the small Jain temple. The next principal building mentioned by him, both in his *Life* and in the *Sí-yu-ki*, is the Hall of the Law built by that monarch for Buddha, which would have been situated between the palace and the main street, while Prajapati's Vihára would have formed the whole or part of the long and even line of buildings which face the west of the street. The north-west corner of the ruin contains a large open space with a small pond in its centre, and a nearly straight road running from it to another southern gateway, and converging with the main street on the Orá Jhár. The eastern half has no very important remains, though the surface is broken everywhere with the débris of houses, and it was here probably that the common people had their quarters. The walls are pierced with numerous gateways, the principal being at either end of the main street and the north-eastern bastion, and in the middle and southern corner of the west wall. At the distance of half a mile from the south-west gate, and separated from the main town by swamps, which probably mark the course of the old moat, is another considerable ruin, identified by Hiouen Thsang with the old Jetavana, one of the most famous monasteries in India. It is a singular fact that this feature is exactly reproduced in the remains of Ráñgi in Rái Bareli, where a similar oblong ruin lies at the same distance and direction from the main town. The remainder of the Chinese pilgrim's measurements seem to have been taken from this point; but it is difficult to select among the numerous mounds the remains of the great Vihára and its rival the idol temple. Nearly a mile to the east of the Jetavana is the high congeries of bricks known, as is the Mani Parbat at Ajodhya, by the name Orá Jhár or "basket shakings," and supposed to be the place where Ráma's labourers emptied out their baskets of earth. This is identified with

some probability by General Cunningham with the Purvavarama built by the lady Vaisakha in honour of Buddha. The top is protected by the tombs of two Muhammadan saints, but General Cunningham cleared one of the sides, and found four pilasters of an exceedingly ancient style of architecture. From the fact that two of the chief thoroughfares of the city so converge as to command a view of this mound, I should conjecture that it was more ancient than the plan of the present remains, and consequently one of the oldest monuments left in the neighbourhood. As yet very little is known of this very interesting ruin, which must contain relics that would do much to elucidate some of the darkest and most interesting periods of Indian history. I was once able to spend a few days in excavating, and dug more than 20 feet deep into the crown of the Angulimatiya *stupa*; but beyond disclosing a square building of 24 feet each way, with a partition wall down the centre, and a second wall running all round the building at a distance of 4 feet, I discovered nothing of interest. It is somewhat difficult to get labourers, as the neighbouring villagers have a superstitious dread of interfering with the old city, and will not even enter it after sunset. A storm of thunder and lightning, which came on when I encamped there on a second occasion, was interpreted as a manifest token of the demons' displeasure with the man who had violated their haunts.'

Sáhibganj.—Town in the Santál Parganá District, Bengal; situated in lat. $25^{\circ} 14' 30''$ N., and long. $87^{\circ} 40' 3''$ E., on the deep channel of the Ganges, which at all seasons runs close under the town, and contiguous to the station on the loop-line of the East Indian Railway. Owing to its favourable position, Sáhibganj has become of late years a great depôt for the exchange of traffic between the river and the rail, and has attracted to itself trade before localised at Bhágalpur, Pírpainti, Rájmahál, and other marts of less note. In 1876-77, the total registered trade of Sáhibganj was valued at more than £450,000, including exports, imports, and in many cases re-exportations. Local produce is received by river from the trans-Gangetic tracts of North Maldah, Purniah, and Bhágalpur; while European goods come up by rail from Calcutta, to be distributed in the same Districts. In 1876-77, the principal items under the former head were—indigo, £86,000; oil-seeds, £38,000; rice, £28,000; hides and stone, £27,000; wheat, £17,000; and under the latter head—cotton piece-goods, £38,000; salt, £12,000.

A registration station was first established at Sáhibganj in 1872, to ascertain the amount of river traffic passing along the Ganges between Lower Bengal on the one hand, and Behar and the Upper Provinces on the other. During the three years 1872-74, the average number of laden cargo boats passing Sáhibganj both ways was about 33,000; the total weight of the cargoes amounted to about 10 million *maunds*, or

say 360,000 tons a year. The down-stream traffic is by far the larger of the two, especially during the latter half of the year, when the river is in flood. Nearly half the down-stream traffic consisted of the single item of oil-seeds, which amounted to nearly 100,000 tons a year, sent chiefly from the Behar marts of Revelganj and Patná. Next came wheat, pulses and gram, sugar and saltpetre; but none of these exceeded 20,000 tons a year. The up-stream traffic predominates during the first half of the year, the boats being often towed up by rope from the bank, assisted by sails. The chief cargoes were rice, about 100,000 tons a year; and salt, 40,000 tons. In 1876-77, the total number of boats that passed the registration station was 43,020, thus classified—up-stream, 12,379 laden and 9179 empty; down-stream, 18,419 laden and 3043 empty.

Sáhibganj.—Civil station of Gayá District, Bengal. Lat. $24^{\circ} 47' 58''$ N., long. $85^{\circ} 2' 45''$ E. Adjoins GAYA TOWN, of which it forms a part. Total population of Gayá with Sáhibganj (1872), 66,843.

Sáhibganj.—Village in Muzaffarpur District, Bengal; situated on the river Bayá, a spill channel of the Gandak, from which it is about 4 miles distant, 30 miles north-west of Muzaffarpur town. Large *bárs*, with trade in oil-seeds, wheat, pulses, and salt, exported by means of the Gandak; chief manufacture, shoes. Two schools. Roads to Motihárl, Motipur, and Lálganj.

Sáhibganj.—Village and produce depôt in Rangpur District, Bengal. Trade in rice and mustard-seed.

Sáhibganj.—Village and police station in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. $23^{\circ} 26' 20''$ N., long. $87^{\circ} 52' 45''$ E.; pop. (1872), under 5000.

Sáhibganj.—Village on the river of the same name in Bákarganj District, Bengal. Exports of rice, molasses, and *sundri* wood; imports of salt, oil, tobacco, cloth, and pulses.

Sáhibi (*Sabi*).—Hill stream in Gurgáon District, Punjab; rises in Rájputána near the Sámbar Lake, flows through the Riwári tract, and empties itself into the Najafgarh *jhil* or lake on the borders of Delhi District. It frequently submerges the land near the foot of the hills, which thus becomes extremely rich and fertile. The water is utilized by means of numerous dams, which force it to spread over the face of the country, and check the violence of its course near the hills.

Sahispur.—Town in Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, North-Western Provinces.—See SAHASPUR.

Sahiswán.—*Tahsil* of Budáun District, North-Western Provinces, stretching inward from the north bank of the Ganges. Area, 473 square miles, of which 328 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 203,206; land revenue, £21,284; total Government revenue, £23,423; rental paid by cultivators, £44,530.

Sahiswán.—Municipal town in Budáun District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsil* of the same name. Pop. (1872), 17,063, consisting of 8245 Hindus, 8814 Muhammadans, and 4 'others.' *Munstfi*, distillery, good *sarái*, Government charitable dispensary, school-house. A large mound marks the site of an ancient fort, said to have been built by Rájá Sahasra Bábu. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1131; from taxes, £656, or 9½d. per head of population within municipal limits. Lat. 28° 4' 20" N., long. 78° 47' 20" E.

Sahiwal.—Municipal town in Sháhpur District, Punjab, and former capital of a native chief. Pop. (1868), 8900, consisting of 4870 Hindus, 3887 Muhammadans, 5 Sikhs, and 138 'others.' Situated in lat. 31° 58' N., and long. 72° 22' E., on the left bank of the Jhelum (Jhílám), 20 miles south of Sháhpur town. Founded, according to tradition, by Gúl Bahlak, one of the ancestors of the Baluch chiefs who held the neighbouring country until the time of Ranjít Sinh. Badly built, and surrounded by a mass of stagnant water, which gives rise to much malaria; but strenuous efforts have been taken to abate this evil. Brisk trade in cotton, grain, and *ghí* with Múltán (Mooltan) and Sukkur (Sakkar). The merchants act as bankers and money-lenders for the cultivating classes, while many of them farm estates on their own account. Manufacture of hardware and of turnery in wood and ivory. Town hall, dispensary, police station, school-house, *sarái*. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £577, or 1s. 3½d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Sahúka.—One of the petty States in Jháláwár, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue in 1876, £265, of which £51 is paid as tribute to the British Government, and £6 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Sahuwálá.—*Tahsil* of Sírsa District, Punjab. Population (1868), 57,520 persons.

Sahyádri.—Mountain range in Bombay. The term Sahyádri is applied to the entire system of the WESTERN GHATS (*q.v.*) from the Tápti river to Cape Comorin, but more especially to the ranges in the coast Districts of the Deccan. The Sahyádri hills in this sense commence in Khándesh District, and they run south and south-west, as far as Goa, with scattered continuations to the Pál Ghát. Ratnágiri may be taken as an example of the coast Districts. The range here forms the continuous eastern boundary, running parallel to the coast. It varies in height from 2000 to 3000 feet, though some of the peaks attain an altitude of 5000 feet. While the banks of the streams produce splendid crops of rice in the rains, with pulse in the cold weather, and some of the inland valleys exhibit a high fertility, the soil is, as a rule, poor and barren, and supports with difficulty its overcrowded population. The coast is rocky and dangerous. It consists of a series

of small bays and coves shut in between jutting headlands, and edged with sand of a dazzling whiteness. At places the hills recede a little, leaving at their base a rich tract of rice fields, with an evergreen strip of cocoa-nut gardens between them and the beach. At intervals of about ten miles a river or bay opens, sufficiently large to form a secure harbour for native craft; and the promontories at the river mouths are almost invariably crowned with the ruins of an old fort. The larger rivers and creeks are navigable for twenty or thirty miles from the coast; and many of the most important towns are situated at their farthest navigable point, for in so rough a country the rivers form the best highways of trade and communication. The wells of the coast villages supply a brackish but not unwholesome water.

The Sahyádrí hills in their geological relations have a wider application, and include, as stated above, the whole Western Gháts from the Tápti to Cape Comorin in the extreme south of the peninsula. The authors of the official *Geology of India* (Messrs. Medlicott and Blanford) have described the Sahyádrí hills in this sense as follows:—‘The Sahyádrí range consists to the northward of horizontal or nearly horizontal strata of basalt and similar rocks, cut into a steep scarp on the western side by denudation, and similarly eroded, though less abruptly, to the eastward. The highest summits, such as Mahábaleshwar, 4717 feet, are perfectly flat-topped, and are clearly undenuded remnants of a great elevated plain. South of about 16° N. lat., the horizontal igneous rocks disappear, and the range is composed of ancient metamorphic strata; and here there is in some places a distinct connection between the strike of the foliation and the direction of the hills; but still the connection is only local, and the dividing range consists either of the western scarp of the Mysore plateau, or of isolated hill groups, owing their form apparently to denudation. Where the rocks are so ancient as those are that form all the southern portion of the Sahyádrí, it is almost impossible to say how far the original direction of the range is due to axes of disturbance; but the fact that all the principal elevations, such as the Nilgiris, Palnis, etc., some peaks on which rise to over 8000 feet, are plateaus and not ridges, tends to show that denudation has played the principal share in determining their contour. The southern portion of the Sahyádrí range is entirely separated by a broad gap (the PALGHAT, *q.v.*), through which the railway from Madras to Bèypur passes.’ See also the article GHATS (Western).

Sai.—River of Oudh, rising in Hardoi District in lat. 27° 10' N., and long. 80° 32' E. (Thornton), between the Gumti and the Ganges. It flows in a tortuous south-easterly direction through Oudh, passing Rái Bareli and Partábgarh towns, enters the North-West Provinces in the Jaunpur District, and falls into the Gumti on its right or south bank a few miles below Jaunpur town. Navigable in the rains for country

boats of 10 tons burden as far as Rái Bareli town. Captain Wilford mentioned that this river 'is called Sambu and Sukti, and in the spoken dialects, Sye, because it abounds with small shells. This is really the case, as I have repeatedly observed whilst surveying or travelling along its banks. They are all fossil, small, and embedded in its banks, and appear here and there when laid bare by the encroachments of the river'; they consist chiefly of cockles and periwinkles.' Wilford identifies the Sai with 'the Sambus of Megasthenes;' but the Sambus is mentioned by 'Arrian as a tributary of the Jumna. Arrowsmith's old map of India, '50 kos to the degree,' compiled chiefly from military sources, showed a cross communication between the Sai and the Gumti some distance above Lucknow. This does not appear in later maps.

Saidábád.—*Tahsil* in Muttra District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* SAYYIDABAD.

Saidápet (*Sydapet*).—Headquarters of the Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras, and a station on the South Indian Railway; situated in lat. $13^{\circ} 1' 32''$ N., and long. $80^{\circ} 15' 40''$ E., 5 miles from Madras city. Pop. (1871), 2989, inhabiting 411 houses. A large salt depôt, and site of the Government model farm. This model farm was established in 1865, under the Governorship of Sir William Denison. From the first, it was fortunate in the appointment of Mr. Robertson as its superintendent, under whose care many series of agricultural experiments have been conducted with an intelligence and continuity seldom combined in India. Among the results are—the quantitative determination of the value of manure, of irrigation, and of deep ploughing; the acclimatization of many foreign plants; the adaptability of European implements to Indian agriculture; and above all, the growth of green crops for fodder at all seasons of the year. The manures which have been applied with profit comprise lime, saltpetre, oilcake, and poudrette, none of which enters into the native system of rural economy. The most remunerative green crops are *cholam* (*Sorghum vulgare*), guinea grass (*Panicum jumentorum*), and horse-gram (*Dolichos uniflorus*). Paddy and sugar-cane also give good fodder, when cut green. In order to extend the practical utility of these experiments, a school of agriculture was opened in connection with the farm in 1876. A full class of 30 pupils joined in the first year, of whom no fewer than 9 came from the Bombay Presidency. It is proposed to build a chemical laboratory, agricultural museum, and veterinary hospital. For some years past, the workshop attached to the farm has turned implements for distribution throughout the country. The following is an outline of the financial working of the institution for 1877-78:—Income—provincial grant, £2000; surplus pound fund, £3820; receipts from farm, £233; receipts from workshop, £185; total income, £6238: Expenditure—

general supervision, £1925; farm, £1100; workshops, £203; school of agriculture, £1941; estate improvements, £1036; allowance for medical charge, £36; total expenditure, £6241.

Saidnagar.—Town in Jaláun District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* SAYYIDNAGAR.

Saidpur.—*Táluk* in Shikárpur District, Sind.—*See* SAYYIDPUR.

Saidpur.—Town in Faridpur District, Bengal.—*See* SAYYIDPUR.

Saidpur.—*Tahsil* and village in Gházipur District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* SAYYIDPUR.

Saidwála.—Town in Montgomery District, Punjab.—*See* SAYYIDWALA.

Sáifganj.—Town in Purniah District, Bengal; situated in lat. $25^{\circ} 32' N.$, and long. $87^{\circ} 37' 36'' E.$, 20 miles distant from Purniah town. The population of Sáifganj itself is only (1872) 1200, but it is closely surrounded by suburban villages, which bring up the total number of inhabitants to about 10,000. The town contains a vernacular school, police outpost, and Government distillery; there are also 3 Muhammadan mosques, and a Hindu *math* or temple built in 1822, and two old tanks excavated in 1807 and 1822 respectively. The value of rice annually exported from Sáifganj is estimated at £25,000, and that of mustard at £5000; the number of blankets annually manufactured is valued at £600. Sáifganj was founded about 150 years ago by the Nawáb Sáif Khán, and is now one of the most populous places in Purniah.

Sáifganj Pirwaha.—Village in Purniah District, Bengal. Lat. $26^{\circ} 13' 55'' N.$, long. $87^{\circ} 15' 51'' E.$; 38 miles distant from Purniah town, and 16 from Basantpur. Pop. (1872), 709. It possesses a middle-class vernacular school, attended by 30 boys.

Sailána (*Sillána*).—Native State in the Western Málwá Agency, under the Central India Agency. Area, about 500 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), about 27,000; estimated revenue, £22,140. This State originally formed a part of RATLAM. On the death of Kesari Sinh, Rájá of Ratlam, in 1709, his eldest son, Mán Sinh, succeeded to the lands forming the present State of Ratlam, and Jái Sinh, his second son, to Sailána. An annual tribute of £3300 was formerly paid to Sindhia, but is now assigned to the British Government in part payment of the Gwalior contingent, under the same conditions as the tribute of Ratlam. The present Rájá of Sailána, Dúla Sinh, is a Rahtor Rájput, and was born about 1838. He receives a salute of 11 guns. The military force of the State consists of 3 field guns, 18 artillerymen, 50 horse, and 120 foot. Sailána (Sillána), the chief town of the State, lies in lat. $23^{\circ} 30' 30'' N.$, and long. $75^{\circ} 0' 45'' E.$

Sailu.—Town in Wardhá District, Central Provinces.—*See* SELU.

Sáin.—Mountain range in Sirmúr State, Punjab, lying between

30° 37' and 30° 51' N. lat., and between 77° 15' and 77° 29' E. long. Thornton states that its length is about 25 miles, running from north-west to south-east. This range divides the basin of the Julal from that of the Giri. Estimated elevation above sea level, from 6000 to 8000 feet.

Saint George, Fort.—See MADRAS CITY. Lat. 13° 4' 45" N., long. 80° 20' E.

Saint Thomas' Mount (*Farangi-malai*).—Town in Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras; the headquarters of the old Madras artillery, and still one of the most important military stations in the Presidency. Lat. 13° 0' 18" N., long. 80° 14' 11" E.; pop. (1871), 15,480, inhabiting 2364 houses. The town possesses a fine church, several chapels, numerous military buildings, including a handsome artillery mess-house, post office, and cantonment magistrate's court. It is a pretty place, and well kept. The *bázár* and native huts are hidden away to the eastward, which adds to the favourable impression made on the visitor who sees it for the first time. The church, standing at the southern end of the parade-ground, is one of the best-looking edifices of its kind in the country. It is seated for 500 men and 80 officers and their families. There are, besides, a Wesleyan chapel at the foot of the mount steps, a Roman Catholic chapel for the European troops, and another small Roman Catholic church, 74 feet long by 25 wide, built in 1764 by the boatmen of Madras, and dedicated to the 'Presentation of the Blessed Virgin.' The total population of Saint Thomas' Mount was in 1871, 15,480, of whom 918 were Europeans and 447 East Indians. The other principal castes and nationalities were Musalmáns (1928), Pariahs (3700), Vellálars (2549), and Pallis (1802). The soil is gravelly, and the health of the station is exceptionally good, epidemic cholera being of rare occurrence. The 'Mount' itself is a granite and syenite rock, about 220 feet above sea level, overlooking the cantonment. On its summit stands the curious old Portuguese church of The Expectation of the Blessed Virgin. This is built over the spot where the Portuguese in 1547 discovered the celebrated Mount Cross, attributed to the legendary evangelism of Saint Thomas. Lucena gives the following account of the finding of the Cross:—'It was met with on digging for the foundations of a hermitage amid the ruins which marked(?) the spot of the martyrdom of the Apostle Saint Thomas. On one face of the slab was a cross in relief, with a bird like a dove over it, with its wings expanded as the Holy Ghost is usually represented when descending on our Lord at His baptism, or on our Lady at her annunciation. This cross was erected over the altar at the chapel which was built on the new sanctua-y.' Dr. Burnell (*Indian Antiquary*, 1874, p. 313) says: 'This account is, no doubt, accurate, for the Portuguese first visiting the mount found the Christian church in ruins, and occupied by a native *fakír*. The description of the slab is also

accurate. It does not appear what cause had destroyed the Christian community there, but it probably was owing to the political disturbances attending the war between the Muhammadans of the north and the Hindu kingdom of Vijayanagar.' Referring to an Italian account (in the 17th century) of the Cross and the Mount festival, Dr. Burnell continues: 'The cross is built into the wall behind the altar in a church on the Great Mount, which is served by a native priest under the Goa jurisdiction. An annual festival is held here, which brings a large assemblage of native Christians to the spot, and causes an amount of disorder which the European Catholic clergy of Madras have in vain tried to put down.' In Anglo-Indian history, and notably in the wars of the Karnatic, Saint Thomas' Mount was a place of great importance. The battle fought here on the 7th February 1759 was one of the fiercest struggles of the Franco-British wars in India. It is thus described by Mr. Crole:—'Colonel Calliaud had been summoned from the south to assist in raising the siege of Madras. He took post at the Mount, with his right at a deserted little temple at the north-east of the present parade-ground, and his left supported by a house called Carvalho's garden, where he posted four pieces of cannon. His troops included the contingent brought by the Company's partisan Muhammad Isaf, and consisted of 2200 horse, 2500 foot, and 6 cannons. Of these, however, only 1500 natives, 80 Europeans, and 12 artillerymen were possessed of the slightest discipline. Lally's forces aggregated 2600, half of whom were Europeans, and all disciplined. He had, besides, 8 guns, possessing a great superiority in weight of metal. The fight lasted from early morning till five P.M., when the enemy, to Colonel Calliaud's intense relief, retreated. The latter had ammunition sufficient to have lasted for about a couple of minutes more.' 'On the 20th March 1769, Haidar Ali, who had marched within 5 miles of Madras, met Mr. Dupré, the senior member of council, and here the disgraceful treaty of the 2nd April was signed. In 1774, at the suggestion of Colonel James, the Mount was established as the headquarters of the artillery. The garrison of the Mount formed the major part of the force (under Sir Hector Munro) that ought to have saved Baillie in 1780. During its absence, only five companies of Sepoys and 4 guns had been left for the protection of the Mount, and a temporary earthwork was raised to strengthen the place against attack. This has long been levelled, but a slight depression crossing the plain midway between Palavaram and the Mount indicates the position of what went by the name of the Marhatta Ditch.'—*Chengalpat Distr. Man.* p. 73. According to Dr. Burnell, the date of the cross tablet and its Pehlevi inscription is probably about the 8th century.

Saint Thome (*Maldipur, Mylapore*).—Suburb of MADRAS CITY (*q.v.*).
Lat. 13° 2' N., long. 80° 19' E.

Sáipur.—Town in Unao District, Oudh.—*See* SAFIPUR.

Sáiri.—Village in the Simla Hills, in a part of the Kunhiár territory assigned to the Rájá of Patialá. Lat. $31^{\circ} 6' N.$, long. $77^{\circ} 6' E.$; stands on a ridge crossed by the road from Kálka and Kasauli to Simla *via* Subáthu, 10 miles from Simla station. Staging bungalow. Elevation above sea level, 4971 feet.

Sakala.—Ruins in Jhang District, Punjab.—*See* SANGALA.

Sakeswar (*Sukesar*).—Mountain in Sháhpur District, Punjab; the highest peak in the SALT RANGE. Lat. $32^{\circ} 33' N.$, long. $71^{\circ} 58' E.$ A fine well-wooded hill, forming the terminal point in which two divergent spurs of the range re-unite. Upon its summit stands the sanitarium for Sháhpur and Miánwáli. Excellent building space; abundant supply of good water. Distant 25 miles east of Miánwáli. Elevation above sea level, 4994 feet.

Sakhar and Shikárpur.—Subdivision, *táluk*, and town in Shikárpur District, Sind.—*See* SUKKUR.

Sakheda.—Town in Baroda State, Bombay. Pop. (1872), 5522.

Sakhi-Sarwar.—Famous Muhammadan shrine in Derá Ghází Khán District, Punjab. Lat. $30^{\circ} N.$, long. $70^{\circ} 10' 30'' E.$ The shrine crowns the high bank of a hill stream, at the foot of the Sulaimán range, in the midst of arid desert scenery, 'well adapted for the residence of those who desire to mortify the flesh.' Founded in honour of Saidi Ahmad, afterwards known as Sakhi Sarwár, the son of an immigrant from Bághdád, who settled at Sialkót, 12 miles east of Múltán, in the year 1220. Saidi Ahmad became a devotee, and having performed a very remarkable series of miracles, was presented by the Delhi Emperor with four mule-loads of money, with which the Sakhi-Sarwár shrine was erected. A handsome flight of steps leads from the bed of the stream to the building, constructed at the expense of two Hindu merchants of Lahore. The buildings include—the mausoleum of Sakhi Sarwár himself; a monument of Bába Nának; the tomb of Massamát Bihí Bhái, wife of Sakhi Sarwár; and a *thakúrdwára*. They thus comprise a curious mixture of Hindu and Muhammadan architecture, and are frequented by devotees of all religions. The guardians of the shrine are the descendants of Sakhi Sarwár's three servants always miraculously limited to the number of 1650, among whom the revenues accruing from the offerings are equally divided. Throughout the year, the shrine forms the resort of numerous mendicants, Hindu and Muhammadan.

Sakit.—Ancient and decaying town in Etah District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. $27^{\circ} 26' 10'' N.$, long. $78^{\circ} 49' 15'' E.$; pop. (1872), 5415, consisting of 3739 Hindus and 1676 Muhammadans. Sakit stands on a very isolated site, 12 miles south-east of Etah town. Its hill was once crowned by a fort; but now only the remains of a large and

ancient mosque, erected in the 13th century, testify to the former supremacy of the Muhammadan element. On the highest part of the existing town rises a half-finished modern temple, remarkable for its Saracenic arches, supported on slender pillars of richly carved Agra stone,—an ambitious work commenced by a commissariat servant (who enriched himself during the Sikh war), but died before its completion. The town clusters around this temple, which, from its conspicuous position, forms a landmark for many miles around. The principal road enters Sakit by a fine new bridge over a ravine, constructed out of the foundations of the old fort. Handsome *bázár*, lined by good shops with flat and pointed ornamental fronts. Trees line the roadway and afford a pleasant shade. The *sardí* is now in ruins; the roof of the old mosque is broken down; and the water of the handsome well has become brackish. New brick-built police station on the site of the old fort; post office, school-house. Small trade in cotton, grain, and indigo seed. Numerous inscriptions on mosques. Bahlol Lodi died at Sakit in 1488; and Ibráhím Lodi planted a colony of Koat Musalmáns here in 1520.

Sakkaraikottai.—Town in Madura District, Madras. Lat. $10^{\circ} 28' 30''$ N., long. $77^{\circ} 59' 10''$ E.; pop. (1871), 7578, dwelling in 1619 houses.

Sakleshpur (lit. '*The Fragmentary God*').—Municipal village in Hassan District, Mysore; situated in lat. $12^{\circ} 57' 20''$ N., and long. $75^{\circ} 50' 31''$ E., on the right bank of the Hemavati river, 23 miles west of Hassan town. Pop. (1871), 1027; municipal revenue (1874-75), £9; rate of taxation, 2d. per head. Headquarters of the Manjarábád *táluk*, and the centre of the coffee trade. The Hemavati is here crossed by an iron girder bridge, carrying the road by which the coffee of the highlands is borne to the seaport of Mangalore.

Sákoli.—The eastern *tahsil* or Subdivision of Bhandára District, Central Provinces. Area, 2174 square miles; pop. (1872), 249,323 persons, residing in 781 villages or townships and 47,471 houses. Sákoli town is situated in lat. $21^{\circ} 15'$ N., and long. 80° E.

Sakrand.—*Táluk* of the Naushahro Deputy Collectorate, Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District, Sind. Area, 1399 square miles; pop. (1872), 53,566; gross revenue (1873-74), £8708.

Sakráypatna.—Village in Kádúr District, Mysore; situated in lat. $13^{\circ} 26'$ N., and long. $75^{\circ} 58' 5''$ E., 15 miles by road north-east of Chik-magalur. Pop. (1871), 1866. The site of an ancient city locally identified with the capital of Rukman-gada, a king mentioned in the *Mahábhárata*. The objects now extant include—a monument to Hon-billa, a watchman whose life was sacrificed in order to preserve the neighbouring AYYANKERE TANK; a huge gun; and an immense slab of stone, 12 feet square and several inches thick, supported on four pillars.

In historical times, Sakráypatna passed through the hands of several families of local chiefs, until annexed to the Hindu kingdom of Mysore in 1690. A large fair is held weekly on Fridays. At the annual car festival of Ranganáth, 3000 rams are sacrificed in honour of the god.

Sakri.—River of Bengal, rising in Hazáribágh District, and flowing in a generally northerly direction through Gayá and Patná Districts. In Hazáribágh, it has a drainage basin of 810 square miles, and being the central stream in a low well-cultivated valley, it receives from all sides numerous feeders. It has a distinct water system, and preserves its own name while it passes through Gayá and Patná Districts on its way to join the Ganges in Monghyr. Throughout its course it is much used for irrigation.

Sakti.—Native State, at the eastern limit of Biláspur District, Central Provinces, to which it is now attached. Pop. (1872), 8394, chiefly Hindus, residing in 94 villages and 2896 houses; area, 115 square miles, of which 41 are cultivated and 47 returned as cultivable waste. Density of population, 73 persons per square mile. Sakti was originally one of the Garbhjá States attached to Sambalpur District. It consists of a curved strip of level country, partly open, partly covered with forest, skirting the base of a range known as the Gunji Hills. Chief products—rice, wheat, oil-seeds, and cotton, besides a small quantity of forest produce, consisting of lac, resin, gum, and *mahua* fruit. The chief is a Ráj-Gond, and pays a tribute of £35. At present, however (1877), the State is under direct British administration. Total revenue for 1876-77, £843, of which £397 was derived from land revenue; expenditure, £959. In 1872, only 22 persons were returned as able to read and write, or as being under instruction. Sakti town lies in lat. 22° 0' 30" N., and long. 83° E.

Salámbha.—Village and salt-works in Gurgáon District, Punjab; situated in the midst of a large saline tract, known as the Noh *maháls*, and at the foot of the Mewát Hills, north of Sonah. The manufactured article bears the general name of Salámbha salt, but is produced in ten separate places within this region. It is made by the evaporation of brine drawn from wells, together with the washings of saline earth, and is of very inferior quality, containing large amounts of other ingredients besides the pure chloride. The total quantity manufactured in 1871-72 was 203,182 *maunds*.

Sálandi (properly *Sálnadi*).—River of Bengal, so called from the *sál* forests which it traverses. It rises in the southern slope of the Meghásani Mountain in Morbhanj State, and in its upper course is a black-water river with high banks and a bottom of muddy sand. For miles the Sálandi flows through one continuous grove of palms and bamboos; it is navigable for country boats as high as 6 miles.

from its junction with the Baitarani. Its lower course bifurcates into a network of streams interlaced with those of the Matáí, a river bringing down the drainage of the country between the Kánsbáns and the Sálandi, and after a tortuous course falling into the Dhámrá near its mouth. The area of the catchment basin of the Sálandi is 250 square miles; the maximum discharge in flood time, 60,000 cubic feet; and the average cold-weather discharge, 260 cubic feet.

Saláya.—Port in Nawánagar State, Káthiáwár, Bombay.

Salbái (*Salbye*).—Village in Gwalior State, Central India; situated 32 miles south-east of the fort of Gwalior, in lat. $25^{\circ} 51' N.$, long. $78^{\circ} 19' E.$ Celebrated for the treaty concluded here in 1782 between the British Government and the Marhattá Confederacy, at the close of the struggle for the Peshwáship which took place after the death of Madho Ráo Ballal. That treaty provided for the surrender to the Peshwá of Bassein and other territory captured by the British during the war; and the cession to the British of Salsette, Elephanta, Karanj, and Hog islands off Bombay. Under the third article of the treaty, the right of the British to the town and *parganá* of Broach was fully recognised, but these were conferred by Government upon Sindhia in consideration of his services, but upon the condition that British trade should be free and unmolested. (*See Aitchison's Treaties and Engagements*, vols. iii. and iv., ed. 1876.)

Sálbaldi.—Village and hill on the Máraí river; situated in lat. $21^{\circ} 26' N.$, and long. $77^{\circ} 59' E.$, 5 miles north of Morsi, partly in Ellichpur District, Berar, and partly in Betúl District, Central Provinces. Celebrated on account of two springs, one very cold, the other warm. When Sítá was deserted by Ráma, she is said by local tradition to have come to Sálbaldi, and to have given birth here to two sons, Kusa and Lava. This tradition would identify Sálbaldi as the scene of the hermitage of Valmiki, whither Sítá, when pregnant, was banished by Ráma.

Salbet (*Shialbet, Scarbet, Shalbet*).—Island situated about 2 miles from the coast of Káthiáwár, Bombay, in lat. (centre) $20^{\circ} 54' 30'' N.$, and long. $71^{\circ} 33' 30'' E.$, 8 miles east-north-east of Jafarábád and 17 miles from Mowah Point. It is about three-quarters of a mile long on its sea-face, and a little more than half a mile broad. Old fortifications stand on its north-west and south points, the latter being strongly constructed. The island is of sandstone, and is included within the State of JAFARABAD. A well in the centre supplies good water. Salbet was formerly a famous piratical stronghold, and might, according to Taylor (*Sailing Directory*, p. 360), be made a safe harbour. Such a refuge is much wanted along the south coast of Káthiáwár.

Salem (*Selam*).—A British District in the Madras Presidency, lying between $11^{\circ} 2'$ and $12^{\circ} 54' N.$ lat., and between $77^{\circ} 33'$ and $79^{\circ} 6' E.$ long. Area, according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1878, 7483 square

miles ; population, according to the Census of 1871, 1,966,995 persons. It is bounded north by Mysore (Maisúr) and North Arcot, east by Trichinopolí and South and North Arcot, south by portions of Coimbatore and Trichinopoli, and west by Coimbatore and Mysore. The administrative headquarters are at SALEM TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—Except towards the south, the District is hilly, with large plains lying between the several ranges. The chief of these ranges are the Shevaroy (highest point, 5410), the Kalráyans (about 4000), the Melagiris (4580), the Kollimalais (4663), the Pachamalais (about 4000), the Yelagiris (4441), the Jevádis (3840), the Vaththalamalais (about 4000), the Erlvánis and Valasaimalais (about 3800), the Bodamalais (4019), the Thopúr Hills, the Thalaimalais. There are also innumerable detached peaks and smaller ranges. The District has been described as comprising ‘three distinct tracts of country, known as the Talághát, the Báramahál, and the Bálághát divisions. The Talághát division, as its name implies, is situated below the Eastern Gháts on the level of the Karnatic generally, and in soil and climate differs but little from the neighbouring Districts of Trichinopoli and South Arcot. The Báramahál division includes the whole Salem face of the Gháts and a wide tract of country at their base ; and the Bálághát is situated above the Gháts, on the tableland of Mysore.’ Of the Osúr *táluk*, only one-half to the north is really Bálághát, the southern half lying considerably below the level of the Mysore plateau. Osúr itself is about 3000 feet above the sea. Dharmapuri is about 1500 feet, and Krishnagiri from 1500 to 2000 feet above sea level. Tirupatúr and Uttankarai lie in one basin, and average slightly over 1350 feet above sea level. At Salem there is a considerable drop, the town of that name being only 947 feet above the sea. The climate is generally dry, and in the northern portions cooler than in the south ; the climate of Osúr being as temperate as that of Bangalore.

The chief river of the District is the KAVERI (Cauvery), from the left bank of which a large area in Tiruchengod and Námakal is irrigated. The PALAR only flows through a few miles of the northern corner of the Tirupatúr *táluk*, where it does nearly as much harm as good, as comparatively little use is made of the water, and the town of Vániambadi lies at its mercy. In 1874, a considerable portion of this town was washed away, and it is only a question of time when the remainder, hitherto preserved at considerable cost, will follow. The PENNAR, rising in Mysore territory, flows through Osúr and Krishnagiri to Uttankarai, where, near the South Arcot frontier, it is joined from north and south by the Pámbar and Vániár, minor streams. The Sanathkumaranadi traverses Osúr and Dharmapuri, in the latter *táluk*, near Marandahalli, being tapped with profit to *rayats* and Government. The fertility of the Atúr *táluk* is chiefly due to the Vasishtanadi and

Swethanadi, which flow eastward into South Arcot. There are, besides these, numerous tributaries of the Káveri. A small traffic is carried on the Káveri in basket boats, and timber is occasionally floated down. The water of these rivers is utilized either by anicuts thrown across their beds or by channels which tap the banks. The channel system is very extensively worked in the Paramathi Division of the Námakal *táluk*. The fisheries of the District, although they make a considerable total, are individually insignificant, consisting of the right of fishing in the different Government tanks, which is purchased for sums varying from 10s. to more than £20.

The District forests are of considerable value, but there is some reason to fear that they have been overworked, with a view to immediate profit rather than ultimate revenue. The Jevádi and Yelagiri Hills still contain some valuable timber, and a large portion of the Shevaroy's is clothed with middling-sized jungle. Sandal-wood is found. The most valuable forest is the belt of *vengai* (*Pterocarpus marsupium*) on the hilly tracts which fringe the Káveri in the south of the Osúr *táluk* and towards Pennagaram. Reserves and plantations have been formed for the supply of fuel to the railway, but at the present stage the experiment is not sufficiently advanced to admit of an accurate estimate being formed of its utility. Jungle produce, such as honey, bees-wax, barks for tanning and dyeing, soap-nut, fibres, medicinal roots, etc., are collected by the Malayális and other jungle tribes; in some cases this right is rented out. Lac is found in the Osúr jungles, and both in the hills and on the plains the tamarind is a fertile source of revenue.

Wild animals are daily diminishing in numbers, as each hillman carries a gun and shoots for food everything that comes in his way, regardless of sex, age, or season of the year. Bison and even elephants are occasionally seen on the Jevádis. Leopards and bears are to be found in most of the hilly tracts. *Sámbar* deer may be found towards Pennagaram, and in a few places in the Osúr *táluk*. Hyænas, antelope, deer of several kinds, wild pig, a species of armadillo, and a few wolves complete the catalogue. Pea and jungle fowl, duck, teal, snipe, floricán, etc., can be had in season.

The geology has been only partially examined. The formation is mostly gneissic, granite and trap dikes cropping up occasionally. The principal varieties of rock belonging to the gneiss which occur in the eastern part are, in the order of their importance and extent of development—(1) Hornblendic schists and rocks; (2) Quartzo-felspathic gneiss, massive or schistose; (3) Talcose and chloritic rocks (generally schistose, rarely massive); (4) Magnetic iron beds; (5) Crystalline limestones. Magnesite veins occur chiefly at the Chalk Hills (so miscalled) near the foot of the Shevaroy's. Pot-stone is found in

several places. (*Vide* Vol. iv., Part 2, *Mem. Geo. Surv. of India*.) Magnetic iron occurs in practically inexhaustible quantities. Corundum and chromate of iron are also obtainable. The washings of some rivers yield gold, notably the Pennár (more correctly Ponniár, so named on account of its golden sands). It is probable that gold may exist in the Osúr *táluk*, where it borders on Mysore. There is no coal. Lime is available in sufficient quantities to serve as a flux in iron-smelting.

History.—The history of Salem, or rather of Salem with the Báramahál as one District, may be said to begin not very long before the middle of last century. Until 1600 A.D., most of the present District, or at all events the Báramahál and Bálághát portions, were probably jungle and desert, with here and there a highland chief—half *pálegár*, half robber—holding his state in rocky keep or mountain castle, owing perhaps some ill-defined allegiance to the distant Rájá of Vijáyanagar. The south and south-west *táluks* no doubt belonged to Chera, and were absorbed in the rising power of Mysore during the 17th century, before the close of which the victorious arms of Chaik Deo Ráj had brought the Báramahál under the same authority. The chief interest in its later history centres in the fate of the fortresses of the BARAMAHAL; and although the District has no connected history, there are few parts of Southern India that contain more spots of interest for English students.

Salem, as at present composed, was acquired by the treaties known as the Treaty of Peace with Tipú Sultán in 1792, and the Partition Treaty of Mysore (1799). By the former treaty, the Talághát and Báramahál were ceded; and by the latter the Bálághát, or what is now the Osúr *táluk*, came into the hands of the British. The District contains 9 *táluks*; of which two are directly under the Collector, three under the Sub-Collector, two form the Head Assistant's charge, and two are in charge of the general Deputy Collector. Its limits are now identical with those of 1799, except that the Kangundi *zamindárá*, north of the Pálár, was finally transferred to North Arcot in 1808.

Administrative History.—Immediately on the acquisition of the Talághát and Báramahál, Colonel (then Captain) Read was placed in charge, with Captains Graham, MacLeod, and Munro (afterwards Governor of Madras) as his assistants. He at once addressed himself to the survey of the District, and to the introduction of a uniform revenue system, which was fairly launched throughout this portion of the District in 1796, as a *rayatwári* system to be confirmed for ever. This, however, met with no favour at headquarters, where the idea of leases on the *zamindárá* system had been resolved on. The *zamindárá* system was formerly unknown in Salem, but the Government ordered it to be introduced. In 1799, Read, with Munro as his secretary,

followed the tide of war into Mysore, and never returned to the District. A new administrator succeeded them, and so faithfully carried out orders, that by 1805 the *zamindári* system was in full force everywhere, except in the Bálághát, which escaped owing to its being a recent acquisition, and, after being leased out for two years to two natives, was finally surveyed in 1804, since which time it has prospered. Great losses followed on the overthrow of Read's settlement. The 205 estates existing and paying 16 *lákhs* of rupees (say £160,000) in 1805, had by 1821 been so reduced in value that they only paid 8 *lákhs*, which in 1836 fell to 5 *lákhs*, and in 1850 to $4\frac{1}{2}$ *lákhs*, or say £45,000. Various causes, into which it is needless to enter here, were at work to bring about this result; and a series of remedies, unsuccessful because they did not go to the root of the mischief, were tried. Of one thing, however, there can be no doubt, viz. that notwithstanding all Read's care and zeal, he had in many cases over-assessed the soil. The *zamindárs* had, before 1813, to some extent given satisfactory evidence that this was so, by reducing rates on 'wet' lands throughout by one-sixth, and on 'dry' land from one-eighth to one-fifth. The end soon came. Before the *zamindári* system had been in existence for five years, those in authority began to hesitate. Their first step in retreat from the false position which had been taken up was made in 1809, when, failing bidders for estates sold for arrears, the Collector was empowered to bring them under his own management, a policy extended in 1813 by permission to buy in such estates at auction on behalf of Government. This politic step was afterwards modified by a restriction of the bid to the amount of the arrears.

On such estates coming under Government management, the District officers had opportunities for more closely studying the causes which led their owners into bankruptcy, consequent on which the conviction became fixed that, to insure stability of revenue, a reduction in the demand was needed. This, however, was only done in a hesitating and partial manner. Thus, in 1816, the assessment in the southern part of the District was reduced generally by 10 per cent.; and in 1818, the Collector was empowered to make a discretionary reduction not exceeding 30 per cent. These benefits touched the *rayatwári* lands only, and rightly so; for, apart from the fact that a reversion to the State as the direct landlord is the most important factor in securing prosperity to the tenantry of the District, the *zamindárs* were even on equitable, much less on legal, grounds entitled to no consideration whatever, as, in fixing the *peshkash* (revenue) payable by them, the cultivated land alone had been taken into account, all the waste being made over free and for ever. In the present day it is hard, with telegraphic communication, and Salem within half a night's journey from Madras,

to realize the darkness in which the authorities formerly were as to the state of the District. Even Munro, when Governor of Madras, than whom no one then living took more interest in the District, was ignorant of important changes which had been introduced into the revenue system. The one thing plainly perceptible at Madras was that the revenue was diminishing and uncertain; the causes were unknown, or if known, wrong deductions were drawn from the facts. To stimulate the extension of cultivation, the suicidal panacea of the *kaul* tenure was resorted to in 1822. *Kaul*, ordinarily signifying an agreement of any kind, in the sense in which it is here used, indicates a tenancy under which the *rayat*, taking up fresh lands, pays no assessment for the first year, half rates for the second, and full rates for the third year. The terms of the tenancy may vary from this, but the principle is the same. The result was a foregone conclusion. *Rayats* already holding over-assessed or fully-assessed lands snapped greedily at the bait, and for the first two years or more, as the case might be, all went on prosperously; but in the year when Government should have reaped the full benefit of their concession, the *rayats* turned round and relinquished their new holdings. Many were the recipes devised to avert the necessary consequence of the measure. The *kaul* tenure was prohibited unless the *pattá* land was retained; the *rayats* should only resign good and bad lands in equal proportions, and might not cling to the one and despise the other. The system was doomed from its birth, and received its death-blow in 1850. As regards the over-assessed lands, the percentage reductions of 1816 to 1818, above referred to, affected the whole tract rateably, but had no operation towards effecting a reduction in cases where individual fields or holdings were over-taxed. Further reductions, but still only in the nature of a percentage reduction, were made in 1858 and 1859, and in respect of garden lands in 1864. But it was not until 1869 to 1874, when the settlement now in force was introduced, that the Government demand was universally fixed on equitable and scientific principles. Under this revision, the area under cultivation has risen from 1,050,000 acres, assessed at £173,000, to 1,210,000 acres, assessed at £180,000.

Tenures.—The District contains three *pálayams* or *zamindáris* of importance,—Sulagiri, Bágalúr, and Berikái, all in the Osúr *táluk*. There are 133 *mittás* and a few *jágírs*. But the predominant tenure is *rayatwári*, the tenant being liable to ejectment by the Government only in case of failure to pay his revenue. Every year he has the option of throwing up his holding or any field in it, and his assessment is fixed for thirty years. A *mittádár* has the right of collecting the *paimqish tirvai* or settled rent, a share of which he pays to Government as *peshkash*. The tenure cannot be reconverted into *rayatwári*, if the

mittáddár is in arrears. His right to collect the *tirvai* can be sold by Government, which does not itself enter the market as a buyer. The *mittáddárs* are addicted to leasing their villages, often selling them in shares, and the lessees again sub-letting; the Hindu system of undivided families multiplies the *mittáddárs*, their middlemen, etc.; the latter and the sub-lessees often get into debt, their rights in the villages being sold by the civil courts; Musalmán inheritance so works in a couple of generations as to produce, instead of one original *mittáddár*, twenty or thirty such, all owning different shares in the village, according to sex and relationship;—these and other causes all combined often render the *rayat* uncertain as to who his landlord is. Perhaps two or three persons will at one and the same time, under colourable rights, distrain or attempt to distrain his property. For these reasons, the position of the *rayat* in *mittá* villages is unenviable. Added to this, he neither shares in the equitable revision of assessment which takes place in Government lands each thirty years, nor in the annual *jamábandí* remissions, granted by Government, when drought, flood, excess of rain, blight, or other accidents impoverish their tenants. If the decision of the civil courts is rightly interpreted to mean that *rayats* in *mittás* are liable to ejectment from year to year, this is not known to the landlords, or if they know it, they do not act on it.

Population.—The only Census of the District, from which safe deductions can be made, is that of 1871, though it is probable that for rough calculations the earlier enumerations were sufficiently near the mark. In 1800, the population was returned at 612,871; in 1835, at 905,190; in 1850, at 1,195,367. Since that time quinquennial Censuses have been taken; and in 1871, the regular Census showed a population of 1,966,995, or an average of 5 persons to each house. The males numbered 975,505, and the females, 991,490. Hindus predominated, numbering in all 1,901,060, or 96·6 per cent. of the population. Of Musalmáns, there were 52,312, or only 2·7 per cent.; and of Christians, 13,333, or 0·7 per cent. Amongst Hindus, the Sivaites outnumber the Vishnuvites by about 2 to 1, the other sects being only fractionally represented. Of Musalmáns, the great majority are Sunnis. Emigration is not considerable, but a few coolies go to Ceylon, the French colonies, and Burma. There is no immigration to speak of. More than half of the population is engaged in cultivation.

SALEM, the capital, is situated on the Tirumanimuttár, about 6 miles from the foot of the Shevaroy's. It is a municipality, with a revenue of £3701 in 1876-77, and a population of 49,681. There are 11 other towns with a population of over 5000, of which TIRUPATUR (12,837) and SHENDAMANGALAM (11,783) are the most important.

Reading rooms or literary associations have been established at Salem, Yercaud (Yerkád), Osúr, and Tirupatúr. The chief source of charity is the Thopur Chattram Fund, from which *sardís* (native inns), etc. are being provided all over the District. Those at Salem, Thopur, Jollarpet, Atúr, and Tirupatúr are amongst the best. Besides the hospital and dispensary at headquarters, there are 9 dispensaries scattered over the District, and scarcely a large village is without its own cleaning and sanitary staff. Salem contains no shrine to compare in magnificence with those of Madura, Tanjore, or Srirangam; but pilgrims crowd to the sacred springs on the Tírtthamalai, to Hanumatírttham on the Pennár, to the pagoda at Osúr, to the Adipadinettu at the falls of the Káveri (Cauvery), and to the festivals at Dharmapuri, Mecheri, and other places. The chief shrines where the Malayális worship are on the Shevaroy's and the Chitterimalai Hills near Harúr. There are printing presses in the Collector's office and in the central jail, but no local newspaper is published, English or vernacular.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of the District, about 3,777,060 acres are occupied by Government villages, the remainder being in *mittá* or *pálayam* villages. The total number of villages in the District is 3594, with 2870 hamlets, excluding those uninhabited, which number 427 and 151 respectively. According to the last quinquennial return, the cultivable area belonging to Government, exclusive of land reserved for public purposes, was 1,623,735 acres, assessed at £224,383. Holdings occupied 1,205,633 acres, assessed at £179,352. The number of registered *rayats* was 190,173, with 245,055 sub-tenants, making a total of 435,228. The *pattas* numbered 206,015, of which 139,768 were single and 66,247 joint. The staple crops are rice and *rágí* (*Elusine coracana*), the latter being almost exclusively the food of the labouring class. The yield is assumed, for purposes of assessment, to be 641 Madras measures of paddy or unhusked rice, and 347 Madras measures of the other three staples for the Talághát *táluks*, the out-turn in the Báramahál and Bálághát *táluks* being the same for paddy, but somewhat less on the average for dry grains. *Rágí* grows to perfection in the Bálághát, and above the average in the Báramahál. *Kambu* or spiked millet (*Panicum spicatum*) is about the same as in the Talághát; but gram, though remarkably fine, is an uncertain crop, and yields little more than half as much as the other staple grains. The greater portion (82 per cent.) of the classified area of the District consists of red soil, the *regar* or black cotton-soil occupying 16 per cent. (in the northern *táluks*, 20 per cent.), and exceptional or permanently improved land, 2 per cent. On a holding of 2 acres of 'wet' and 3 acres of 'dry' land, the net profit would not probably exceed £6 per annum, or about 10s. a month. The mass of the peasantry are in debt. The habit of indebtedness is so

ingrained in their nature, that if they all started fair to-morrow, 50 per cent. would be in debt again in a year.

One man is held to be sufficient for the ordinary daily labour on a farm of 3 acres of 'wet,' or 6 acres of 'dry' land, if assisted in the heavy work of planting, weeding, reaping, and threshing. His wages would be 480 measures of grain per annum = £1, 5s., plus an annual money payment of 6s. (the wages in the northern being lower than in the southern *táluks*). Twenty-seven measures of seed are required for an acre of 'wet,' and 6 measures for an acre of 'dry' land. Irrigated crops are weeded twice if sown broadcast, but once only if transplanted. 'Dry' crops are weeded only once. Manure is applied, as a rule, by treading in leaves on 'wet,' and penning out sheep on 'dry' land. For 'wet' lands, the average is 120 bundles of wild indigo or other leaves per acre, and this is supplied annually to all fields thought worth manuring. Eight pens of 200 sheep each, at a cost of 4 measures of grain per diem, is the usual allowance per acre for 'dry' lands. The highest Government 'wet' rate in the District is £1, 8s. per acre, and the lowest is £1, 3s. 1½d., exclusive of local cesses, the highest for 'dry' lands being 10s., and the lowest 6d. The cost of cultivating an acre of good black loam is about 18s. on irrigated, and 7s. 6d. on unirrigated lands in the northern *táluks*, the rates in the Talághát being somewhat higher, or 18s. 6d. and 9s. 6d. respectively. The customary rates of wages for unskilled labour are—for men, 3d.; for women, 2½d.; for children (male or female), 1½d. The Wadder or navvy caste get twice as much, but they generally do task-work, by which they gain more than by daily wages. The wages of a working goldsmith vary with the value of the materials, but may be taken on an average at 1s. per diem. A blacksmith gets 1s.; a carpenter from 1s. to 1s. 3d.; bricklayers from 9d. to 1s. 3d. During the ten years ending 1874, the prices at Salem town per *garce* of 9360 lbs. avoirdupois, in February and March, when the *rayats* sell, averaged £10, 6s. for rice, and £11, 10s. for *cholam* or great millet (*Sorghum vulgare*).

Natural Calamities.—In May 1872, and again in May 1874, the District suffered from cyclones which, though they did not, owing to absence of cultivation in those months, do much damage to crops, caused terrible mortality among cattle, and breached several tanks. In the autumn of 1874, heavy floods occurred, notably in the Pálár and the basin between the Pálár and the Yelagiri Hills. Many tanks were breached, and much property was damaged. The railway line was carried away in several places, and a considerable portion of the town of Vániambádi was swept away.

Blights are not uncommon in Salem, and locusts, caterpillars, and other insects devour the crops. Floods on a large scale are unknown. The Pálár, when in flood, occasionally causes loss to the river-side

landholders; and breached tanks, especially when a chain of tanks gives way together, cause damage, but more generally to property than to life. The severest famine of early years was that of 1833, when prices rose 71 per cent.; 1845-46 was a year of high prices, as also was 1857-58. In the famine of 1866, the following prices were reached between September and December:—Rice, 15s. to 17s. 6d. per cwt.; *chulam*, 8s. 6d. to 12s. per cwt. Works and relief houses were provided by Government for the needy. But this and all previous famines on record are dwarfed by the terrible calamity of 1877-78. There had been signs and warnings by which this might have been foreseen. The north-east monsoon failed both in 1873 and 1874. In 1875, the north-east monsoon was almost a total failure, especially the latter part of it; and in 1876, the south-west and north-east monsoons, on both of which the District depends for its water supply, failed almost completely. The pinch began to be felt in October 1876, but people still hoped. By November, the failure of the monsoon became an established fact; grain dealers took alarm, and prices rose at a bound. In August 1877, inferior rice had risen to a rupee for 11 lbs., and other grains when procurable were nearly the same price: as in ordinary years the price is from 20 lbs. to 30 lbs. for a rupee, the keen distress may be realized. During the first thirteen months of famine the mortality was 180,000, the average death-rate in other years being 50,000. It is estimated that altogether the District lost 10 per cent. of its population. Distress may be said to set in when normal prices are doubled, any rise beyond that rate involving famine. One result of the late famine has been, that attention was called to the neglected means of storing water. The Pálár and Káveri (Cauvery) might be utilized to a far greater extent than at present, and the Pennár (Ponniyár) carries untold wealth into the Bay of Bengal. In so far as the increased wealth of the population gives them more reserve to draw upon in time of scarcity, improved irrigation might do much for the District; but it cannot render certain a capricious rainfall, on which the majority of the tanks depend, and it cannot secure grass for cattle. The neglect of forestry is probably responsible for much. In the middle of the 16th century, the whole District was more or less a forest; it is not now easy in many places to find shade for a noon-day halt. Were it not for the railway, this last famine would probably have carried off a half of the population, instead of the 204,590 who perished from insufficient food, and the subsequent diseases consequent thereon.

Industries and Trade.—The chief industry of the District is weaving, which is carried on in almost every large town or village, and the weavers of Salem and Gházipur are especially noted. Carpets of great beauty and superior workmanship are made in the Salem jail. Good

iron and steel are made, but only on a small scale; an attempt to utilize the mineral wealth of the District by European capital having failed owing to the cost of charcoal. In Salem there are several cutlers whose wares are famed for temper and finish throughout India. Sugar, cotton, hides, indigo, saltpetre, salt, grains, betel, areca-nut, coir, jungle produce, etc., pass freely in and out of the District, but there is no trustworthy source of information regarding imports and exports.

Communications.—There are about 1386 miles of road in the District, on which the expenditure in 1875 was £15,590; but the state of the roads is not satisfactory. The length of railway line within the District is 134 miles. The principal passes are—the Chengama Pass, by which South Arcot is reached from Singárapet; the Morúrpatti Ghát, which lies between the Shevaroy's and the Thopur Hills; the Thopur and Mukanúr Gháts, through which traffic reaches Dharmapuri from the south-east and east; the Ráyakottai Pass, which gives access from Krishnagiri to the Bálághát; the Manjanadi and Kottáipatti Passes, by which Uttankarai is accessible from Salem and Atúr respectively, on the south; the Anchittai Ghát, almost impracticable, by which the Bálághát portion of the Osúr *táluk* communicates with the valley of the Káveri.

Administration.—The imperial revenue of the District for 1874-75 was £294,318, of which land revenue contributed £227,507. Excise came next with £36,682; and stamps, £18,859. The other items of receipt are small, the forests being credited with only £5405. The total revenue in 1805-06 is returned at £191,786, of which the land yielded £182,348; in 1850-51, the total revenue was £196,693, and the land revenue, £177,535; in 1870-71, the total revenue was £302,091, and the land revenue, £232,191.

There are at present 24 magistrates' courts and 13 civil courts, including those of the revenue officers, covenanted and uncovenanted, empowered to hear rent suits. The number of covenanted officers is 6, including the two Assistant Collectors who have no separate charge. Exclusive of village watchmen, the District police in 1876 consisted of 2 officers, 20 inspectors and 1095 constables, or 1 policeman to every 6·86 square miles and every 1761 of the population. The cost of this force was £14,778, equal to about 1½d. per head of the population. The value of their services as a preventive force, when compared with the old police organization (dating before 1858), may be gauged from the fact that in 1875 there were only 2 gang robberies in the District against 212 in 1858. The District has 1 central and 16 subsidiary jails, containing (in 1875) 1598 prisoners, and costing Government £3493, or £2, 4s. per prisoner.

The education of the masses is chiefly got at the *páyal* schools, where elementary teaching is given after a time-honoured but unscientific

fashion. In 1871, according to Census returns, there were only 190 schools in the District; but this cannot be supposed to include the *payal* schools. The Local Fund Act, passed in 1871, gave a stimulus to popular education by providing the funds for its extension; and in 1874-75 there were 230 schools, either belonging to Government or aided, which were attended by 7140 pupils. In addition to this, it is estimated that about 7200 children receive elementary education from unaided *payal* schools. Only 2·8 per cent. of the whole population could read and write in 1871, and of these only 276 were females. This is no fair indication of the present state of things, as the last ten years have been marked by extension of educational facilities. Regarding missionary effort, the field is divided between the London Mission, the French priests under the Vicar Apostolic of Pondicherry, and, to a small extent, the Lutheran Evangelistic Mission. The Roman Catholics outnumber the rest.

Medical Aspects.—On the lower hill ranges, fever prevails for a great part of the year. Strangers, especially if they drink the water, are most liable to attack, though the anæmic faces and enlarged spleens of the acclimatized population show that they have by no means an immunity from the scourge. In the plains, during the rainy season, large tracts are liable to a peculiarly weakening sort of fever, which in some years causes considerable mortality. The cause of this is not exactly known, as the fever does not always appear under given conditions; and occasionally one particular locality, noted for fever, may be free, while another, reputed for healthiness, may become the scene of an epidemic. Cholera rages through the District at times. The last outbreak commenced in August 1875, and the disease has not yet (January 1878) disappeared. The virulence of the disease may be estimated from one example. In the village of Kanakampatti, in three days 52 died out of a population of 200. The deaths from cholera, in 1875-76, were 15,487; in 1876-77, 45,162; and in 1877, from July to November, 8002. Small-pox has to a great extent been stamped out, though during the famine, when the population was peculiarly predisposed to disease, exceptional mortality occurred. Dengue was prevalent in the latter part of 1872. Leprosy is not common. Cattle-disease is rarely absent, rinderpest and foot-and-mouth disease being the most common forms.

Salem (*Selam*).—Chief town of Salem District, Madras, and a municipality, with the courts of the District Judge, Magistrate and *munsif*, a central jail, 2 churches, memorial hall, schools, hospital, etc. Lat. 11° 39' 10" N.; long. 78° 11' 47" E.; pop. (1871), 49,681, dwelling in 7922 houses. Ninety per cent. of the population are Hindus. The river Tirumanimutár divides the native town into two quarters. The Europeans live in a suburb named Hastanpet. The railway station lies in another suburb, Suramangalam, 3½ miles distant. Salem is a busy

trading place, with a considerable weaving industry. The town is clean, and well cared for. Its old notoriety for endemic fever and cholera has disappeared before the sanitary improvements of the municipality. The town is prettily situated, 900 feet above sea level, in a long valley with the Shevaroy Hills towering above. These hills are only 6 miles distant, and the ascent to the plateau is only 7 miles. Though never a place of any military strength, its position in a much contested District has made it the scene of frequent fighting. It was first captured by Captain Wood in 1768. The municipal income of Salem in 1876-77 was £3701; incidence of taxation, 1s. 0½d. per head of population (50,012) within municipal limits.

Salem (*Chinna Salem*, or *Little Salem*).—Village in South Arcot District, Madras. Lat. 11° 38' N., long. 78° 55' 30" E.; pop. (1871), 5303, dwelling in 761 houses.

Sáletekri.—Chiefship in Bálághát District, Central Provinces; comprising 71 villages; area, 284 square miles, chiefly hilly. This chiefship was probably one of the grants made for guarding the passes of the hill country, and has remained in the same family for many generations. The principal village is 50 miles south-east of Búrha. The country produces bamboos of the finest kind.

Sálmábád.—Village and police station in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 4' 50" N., long. 88° 2' 45" E.; pop. (1872), under 5000.

Salimpur.—Town in Lucknow District, Oudh; situated 20 miles from Lucknow city, on the road to Sultánpur. Pop. (1869), 2365, including some adjacent hamlets. Picturesquely situated on broken and high ground overlooking the Gumti river, the approach to it lying across a ravine spanned by a long bridge built since British annexation. Small Government school.

Sáلكhiá.—Northern suburb of HOWRAH, the chief town of Húglí District, Bengal. Inhabitants largely engaged in river traffic. Permanent market.

Sálnadí.—River of Bengal.—See SALANDI.

Salon.—*Tahsil* or Subdivision of Rái Bareli District, Oudh, lying between 25° 49' and 26° 19' N. lat., and between 81° 16' and 81° 39' E. long. Bounded on the north by Digbijaiganj *tahsil*, on the east by Ráipur and Partábgarh *tahsils*, on the south by Fatehpur District in the North-Western Provinces, and on the west by the Rái Bareli *tahsil*. Area, 434 square miles, of which 209 are cultivated. Pop. (according to the Census of 1869, but allowing for recent transfers), 238,025, namely, 211,063 Hindus and 26,962 Muhammadans. Number of males, 119,084; of females, 118,941; number of villages or towns, 457; average density of population, 548 per square mile. This *tahsil* comprises the three *parganá*s of Salon, Parshádepur, and Rokhá Jáis.

Salon.—*Parganá* in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; recently transferred

from Partábgarh District. A picturesque and interesting tract, bounded on the south by the Ganges and on the north by Parshádepur *parganá*. It is also watered by the Sáí river, and is covered with jungle, in which the Náin *álukdárs* and other freebooters in the time of native rule built their forts. Wild cattle are found in large numbers. The banks of the river are steep and covered with brushwood. Area, 226 square miles, of which 110 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 120,545, viz. 109,630 Hindus and 10,915 Muhammadans. Of the Hindu population, 12,252 are Bráhmans, 6137 Kshattriyas, 15,940 Ahírs, 12,150 Chamárs, and 12,118 Kurmís. Of the Kshattriyas, 4099 belong to the Kanhpúria clan, who are the principal landholders, owning 98 out of the 287 villages comprising the *parganá*; Muhammadans own 78 villages. The Government land revenue falls at the rate of 3s. 4½d. per cultivable acre.

Salon.—Town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh, and headquarters of Salon *tahsil* and *parganá*; situated on the road from Partábgarh to Rái Bareli town, in lat. 26° 1' 40" N., and long. 81° 29' 50" E. Pleasantly situated amid groves of mango and palm trees. Formerly a flourishing place, but now much reduced. Pop. (1869), 5155, viz. 2971 Muhammadans and 2184 Hindus, residing in 1026 mud-built and 85 masonry houses. Ten mosques; one Hindu temple. Government school. Average annual *bázár* sales, £1000.

Salsette.—Large island to the north of Bombay, extending 16 miles from Bhandára northwards to the Bassein inlet. Lat. 19° 2' 30" to 19° 18' 30" N., and long. 72° 51' 30" to 73° 3' E.; area, 150 square miles. Connected with Bombay Island by bridge and causeway. The sea-face is fringed with islands, and is distinguished by several remarkable peaks. The central and highest, Thána (Tanna) Peak, is a flat-topped hill, 1530 feet high; on the north is another detached, sharp peak, 1500 feet above the sea. This beautiful island is rich in rice-fields, diversified by jungles and studded with hills. The ruins of Portuguese churches, convents, and villas attest its former importance, and its antiquities at Keneri still form a subject of interest. Seized by the Portuguese early in the 16th century, it should have passed to the English, together with Bombay Island, as part of the marriage portion of the queen of Charles II. The Portuguese in 1662, however, contested its alleged transfer under the marriage treaty, and it was not till more than a century afterwards that we obtained possession. The Marhattás took it from the declining Portuguese in 1739. The English captured it from the Marhattás in December 1774, and it was formally annexed to the East India Company's dominions in 1782 by the treaty of Salbái. Salsette affords a deeply interesting field for the geologist and natural historian, and it occupies several paragraphs in the official *Manual of the Geology of India*. It will ever be associated with the name of Victor Jacquemont,

as it formed the scene of his last labours; and from its jungles the brilliant Frenchman carried away the fever of which he shortly afterwards died at Bombay. The cave architecture of Salsette deserves notice. The great *chaitya* at Keneri, however, is pronounced by Fergusson to be merely a bad copy of the Karli cave. It belongs to the beginning of the 5th century, but 9 of its *vihāras* seem to be of earlier date. Salsette had, however, a sanctity of its own early in the 4th century as containing a tooth of Buddha; at the period, says Fergusson, 'when these relics were revolutionizing the Buddhist world—at least at two diametrically opposite points of the coast of India, at Purī, and in this island. It may have been in consequence of the visit of this relic that the island became holy; and it may have been because it was an island that it remained undisturbed by the troubles of the mainland, and that the practice of excavating caves lasted longer here than in any series above described. Be this as it may, the caves here go straggling on till they fade by almost imperceptible degrees into those of the Hindu religion. The Hindu caves of Montpezir, Kanduti, and Amboli are so like them, and the change takes place so gradually, that it is sometimes difficult to draw the line between the two religions.'

Salt Range.—Hill system in Jhelum (Jhīlam), Shāhpur, and Bannu (Bunnoo) Districts, Punjab, deriving its name from its extensive deposits of rock-salt. Lat. $32^{\circ} 41'$ to $32^{\circ} 56' N.$, and long. $71^{\circ} 42'$ to $73^{\circ} E.$ The main chain commences in the lofty hill of Chel, 3701 feet above the sea, which is formed by the convergence of three spurs cropping up from the Jhelum river, and divided from the Himālayan outliers only by the interposition of the river valley. The most northern of these spurs rises abruptly from the river bank at Sultānpur, and runs nearly parallel with the Jhelum at a distance of 25 miles, till it joins the main chain after a course of 40 miles. It bears the local name of the Nīli Hills. The second spur, known as the Rotās range, runs half-way between the Nīli Hills and the river, parallel with both. It contains the famous fort of Rotās, and the hill of Tilla, the sanatorium of Jhelum District, with an elevation of 3242 feet above sea level. The third or Pabbi spur rises south of the Jhelum river, dips for a while on approaching the river valley, and rises once more on the northern bank, till it finally unites with the two other chains in the central peak of Chel. Thence the united range runs westward in two parallel ridges, till it culminates in the mountain of Sakeswar, in Shāhpur, which has an elevation of 4994 feet above sea level. Between these lines of hills, and topped by their highest summits, lies an elevated and fertile tableland, picturesquely intersected by ravines and peaks. In its midst nestles the beautiful lake of Kala Kahār. The streams which take their rise in the tableland, however, become brackish before reaching the lowlands. The beds of salt, from which the range derives its name,

occur in the shape of solid rock on the slopes of this tableland, and form the largest known deposits in the world. The mineral is quarried at the MAYO MINES, and at some other spots. Coal also occurs both in oolitic and tertiary strata; the former at Kálábágh, employed as a fuel for the Indus steamers, and the latter between Jalálpur and Pind Dádan Khán. It is of inferior quality, however, consisting of a brown lignite, difficult to set on fire, and yielding a very large proportion of ash. From Jhelum District, the Salt Range stretches into Sháhpur and Bannu. The long spur which projects into the former District terminates in the hill of Sakeswar, and comprises a number of separate rock-bound alluvial basins, the largest of which, the Sún and Khabbakki valleys, occupy the northern half, while the south consists of a broken country, cut up into tiny glens and ravines by a network of limestone ridges and connecting spurs. In the northern portion of the range, the drainage gathers into small lakes, and trees stud the face of the country; but southward, the streams flow through barren and stony gorges, interspersed with detached masses of rock, and covered with the stunted alkaline plants which grow on soil impregnated with salt. The Bannu portion of the range runs north-westward toward the Indus, which it meets at Mári, opposite KALABAGH, and rising again on the western side, is continued in the KHATTAK-MAIDANI HILLS. The scenery throughout the Range is rugged and often sublime, but wanting in softness and beauty. In many parts it becomes simply barren and uninviting. Besides salt and coal, many other valuable minerals occur in these hills.

Salt-Water Lake (or *Dhápa*). — Lake in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated about 5 miles east of Calcutta, between the Húglí and Bidyádhari rivers, and covering an area of about 30 square miles. Lat. $22^{\circ} 28'$ to $22^{\circ} 36'$ N., and long. $88^{\circ} 25' 30''$ to $88^{\circ} 30' 30''$ E. It contains a section of the Inner Sundarbans Passage for boats bound to Calcutta *via* Báliágháta. The vicinity of the Salt-Water Lake is intersected by innumerable water-courses and rivers, which flood the country at spring-tides. A part of the lake is now in course of reclamation, by the sewage of Calcutta being deposited in it.

Sálúr. — Chief town of Sálúr *táluk*, Vizagapatam District, Madras. Lat. $18^{\circ} 30' 40''$ N., long. $83^{\circ} 14' 50''$ E.; pop. (1871), 10,633, inhabiting 2383 houses. Sub-magistrate's court, post office, dispensary, and good school. Sálúr is the residence of the *zamindár*, whose ancestors were feudatory to Jáipur (Jeypore), and afterwards to Vizianágaram. The latter power confiscated the estate in 1774, but the Company restored it to the old family twenty years later. The estate contains 177 villages, 20,870 houses, and (1871) 96,537 inhabitants, and pays a *peshkash* or fixed revenue of £3600.

Salwin (*Salween*). — River of Tenasserim, British Burma, with a

general north and south course. The source of this river has never been explored; but the best authorities agree in stating that it is in proximity to the source of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy), far up in the snowy range which lies eastward of Assam in lat. 28° N., and forms part of the Himálayan system of mountains. After traversing Yunan, a Chinese Province, and the Shan and Kareng-ní States lying south of it, the Salwín enters British Burma at its extreme north-eastern corner, and for some distance, as far as the Thoung-yeng river, marks the eastern limits of the Province. In this part of its course, the Salwín is a broad, swift stream, navigable by boats, and flowing between high, densely wooded mountains. Farther south, these gorges become narrower; and near the mouth of the Thoung-yeng, the breadth of the stream contracts so much that at places its bed does not occupy more than 30 yards. A few miles lower down, and about 100 miles from the sea, are the great rapids, formed by a bar of rocks stretching completely across the river, and impassable even by canoes during the dry season. In the rains, when the Salwín is swollen by the vast volume of water brought down from the extensive tract of country which it and its tributaries drain, the current is so strong, and the violence of its efforts to pass the rocky ledge so great, that even massive logs of timber are dashed to pieces. Farther south are other but less formidable rapids, impassable in the rains. Below, there are numerous islands and shoals covered during the floods, when the water rises 30 feet. A few miles lower down, after the Salwín has received the Rwon-za-leng from the west, the hills on the eastern bank recede, and those on the western diminish considerably in altitude; and the river traverses a more open and level country, with outcrops of limestone on both banks, rising abruptly out of the plain into lofty serrated ridges. At Maulmain, the Salwín receives from the eastward the GYAING, formed by the junction of the Hlaing-bhwai and the Houng-tharaw, and the ATTARAN, which joins the Gyaing at its mouth. Here the Salwín splits into two mouths—the northern, flowing between Bhí-lú-gywon and the old town of Martaban, is unnavigable now by reason of sandbanks, but some centuries ago was the principal entrance. The southern branch flows past Maulmain, and falls into the sea at Amherst by a mouth 7 miles wide. By this channel vessels of the largest size can reach Maulmain, but navigation is rendered difficult by the shifting of the sands.

Vast quantities of teak from British and foreign forests are annually floated down the Salwín, and shipped at Maulmain for export. The timber is dragged into the forest streams by elephants, marked, and then washed in the rains into the Salwín, by which it is carried down in whirling masses until checked by a rope stretched across the river

assemble here in the season, and raft as many logs as they can, to be claimed by the owners, who pay salvage.

The area of the Salwín basin is 62,700 square miles; it is 800 miles in length, but seldom more than 100 miles in breadth. The upper part is conterminous on the east with that of the Me-kong or Cambodia river; lower down, it is bounded by the Meinam river, which belongs to Siam. The length of the main stream of the Salwín is estimated at 750 miles.

Salwín Hill Tracts.—A British District in Tenasserim Division, British Burma; extending from the northern frontier southwards to Kaw-ka-rit on the Salwín river, and occupying the whole of the country between that river on the east and the Pong-loung Mountains on the west. On the north it is bounded by Kareng-ní (Kareng-nec), on the east by Zeng-mai, on the south by Amherst and Shwe-gyeng, and on the west by Shwe-gyeng and Toung-ngú (Toung-ngoo). Estimated area, 4646 square miles; population (1872), 26,117 souls. From the annexation of Pegu until 1872, the Hill Tracts formed a Subdivision of Shwe-gyeng District, but in that year they were erected into a separate jurisdiction. The administrative headquarters are at PA-PWON.

Physical Aspects.—The whole country is a wilderness of mountains. Even the valley of the Rwon-za-leng, the principal river after the Salwín, is, strictly speaking, only a long winding gorge. The direction of the mountains, of which there are three principal ranges, is generally north-north-west and south-south-east, but the spurs from the main system appear to be thrown in bewildering eccentric masses. The slopes are so precipitous, and so densely wooded, that the passage by laden animals is in many places impossible, and that of travellers on foot difficult and fatiguing in the extreme. It is through these hills that Shan caravans come down annually to Rangoon and Maulmain; and with the exception of the routes used by them, there are no roads over which laden bullocks can pass, baggage being carried on men's backs. The country is drained by three principal rivers—the SALWIN, the RWON-ZA-LENG, and the BHI-LENG (Bhee-leng)—fed by numerous mountain torrents rushing down narrow ravines, over rocks and boulders, on their way to the larger streams, which partake of the nature of their impetuous tributaries, and dash themselves in foam over masses of rock, or whirl in wild eddies through ravines shut in by beetling crags and gigantic forest trees, covered with brilliant flowers or creepers. When these rivers emerge into the low country they entirely lose their picturesqueness, and sink into muddy streams, with no trace left of their former state but the rapidity of their currents. The Rwon-za-leng is navigable in the dry season as far as Pa-pwon. Within the limits of this District, the Bhi-leng is impracticable, except for rafts and small boats. The Salwín is impeded by impassable rapids.

The chief crops are rice and betel-nuts. The cultivation is almost entirely carried on in *toungyas* or nomadic clearings in the hills, except near Pa-pwon, and in the betel-gardens, which are permanent. The area under *toungya* cultivation in 1877 was 12,526 acres.

The population in 1872 was returned at 26,117; in 1877, at 26,649. The inhabitants are almost entirely Karengs; a few Shans are settled in the neighbourhood of Pa-pwon. The eastern portion of the Hill Tracts was formerly inhabited by Rwon Shans, whence the name Rwon-za-leng; but the larger number of these were brought away by Aloung-bhúra to what is now the Syriam township of Rangoon.

The revenue is raised almost entirely from the land and capitation taxes. In 1876-77, the receipts amounted to only £2491.

Administration.—The District is administered by an Assistant Commissioner, stationed at Pa-pwon, on the Rwon-za-leng. Under him are an extra-Assistant Commissioner and the *thúgyi* (Thoogyee) of the six circles of Pa-pwon, Kaw-lú-do (Kaw-loo-do), Kaw-ka-rit, Kha-daing-ti (Kha-daing-tee), Mai-waing, and Weng-hpyaing. For some years after the country became British territory, it was in a very unsettled state, but the risings were speedily quelled. In 1867, fresh and more serious disturbances broke out. A chief named Dípa attacked and plundered our villages, and threatened Pa-pwon; and from that time dacoities or gang robberies became frequent. This District forms the basis of operations of those who have purchased the right to fell timber in the vast teak tracts beyond the Salwín river. These foresters come up with large sums in cash, which they require for the payment of their workmen, or for dues to the various chiefs; and in consequence, the whole of the neighbouring country beyond our borders has become the haunt of men who acknowledge no fixed authority, but collect in bodies under some daring leader, fall upon the foresters, and attack our villages. In order to remedy this, the Salwín Hill Tracts were separated from Shwe-gyeng in 1872, and formed into a distinct administration, and the police were considerably strengthened. The Superintendent of the Tracts is *ex officio* Superintendent of Police, and in 1877 had a force under him of 17 subordinate officers and 227 men, of whom 12 were river police; of these, 158 were Karengs, who work well but will not serve for long. The constabulary is quartered at Kaw-lú-do, at Kyouk-gnyat, and Dha-kweng on the Salwín, with a strong reserve at Pa-pwon.

Samadiala Chabaria.—One of the petty States in Gohelwár, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 2 villages, with 5 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £650; £189 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £38 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Samadiala Charan.—One of the petty States of North Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £80; no tribute is paid.

Samadrāla.—One of the petty States of Undsarviya, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £800; £51 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and 16s. to the Nawáb of Junágárh.

Sámaguting.—Outpost and former headquarters of the Nágá Hills District, Assam; situated in lat. $25^{\circ} 45' 30''$ N., and long. $93^{\circ} 46'$ E., on a tributary of the Dhaneswari river, 2477 feet above sea level, about 67 miles south of Golághát in Sibságárh District. Estimated pop. 746. Sámaguting was chosen as a British station in 1867, but abandoned in favour of Kohima in 1878. Information of the change reached me only in 1880, too late to insert Kohima in its proper place in Volume V. Kohima is better situated for the supervision of the Nágas; the site is healthy; the water-supply secured by an aqueduct; and the garrison strongly stockaded. There were the usual civil offices at Sámaguting, a charitable dispensary, and a police outpost at the foot of the hill on which the station is built. A few Márwáí traders settled there. The country round is inhabited by the Káchá tribe of Nágas. Rainfall, 63 inches.

Sámalkot.—See SAMULKOTA.

Sámárkha.—Town in Kaira District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. $22^{\circ} 36'$ N., long. $73^{\circ} 2'$ E.; pop. (1872), 5231.

Sambalpur.—A British District in the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between $21^{\circ} 2'$ and $21^{\circ} 57'$ N. lat., and between $83^{\circ} 16'$ and $84^{\circ} 21'$ E. long. Area (exclusive of the petty Native States attached to the District), 4407 square miles; pop. in 1872, 523,034. Inclusive of the attached Native States, Sambalpur is bounded on the north by Chutiá Nágpur; on the east and south by Cuttack District, Bengal; and on the west by Biláspur and Ráipur Districts. The administrative headquarters are at SAMBALPUR TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—Though included in the Chhatísgarh Division, Sambalpur forms no part of Chhatísgarh proper, either geographically or historically. The *khálsa* or Government portion of the District lies along the valley of the Mahánadi, and constitutes a centre round which are clustered the feudatory States and chiefships of BAMRA, KAROND, PATNA, RAIGARH, RAIRAKHOL, SARANGARH, and SONPUR, which are noticed in their respective alphabetical places. This tract spreads out in an undulating plain, with ranges of rugged hills rising in every direction. The largest of these is the Bará Pahár, a mountain chain which covers 350 square miles, and attains at Debrigarh a height of 2267 feet above the plain. The main portion of this network of hills is situated in a bend of the Mahánadi, by which river it is almost surrounded on three sides; but to the south-west an outlying ridge projects about 30 miles, as far as Singhora Ghát or Pass, where the road from Ráipur to Sambalpur winds through it. From this point the hills continue

in a southerly direction through Phuljhar, when they turn off abruptly to the westward. Singhora Pass has been the scene of many an action between the predatory Gonds of Phuljhar and their more civilised assailants from the Chhatisgarh country; and in 1857, our troops under Captain Wood, under Major Shakespear, and under Lieut. Rybot, had successively to fight their way through, when marching to the relief of Sambalpur. Another important range is that of Jarghátí, which crosses the Chutiá Nágpur road 20 miles north of Sambalpur town. This also afforded a stronghold to the rebels. Its highest point is 1693 feet above the plain. To the southward a succession of broken ranges run parallel with the Mahánadi for about 30 miles, the highest points being Mandhar, 1563 feet, and Bodápáli, 2331 feet. Of the isolated hills and small ranges scattered over the District, the loftiest are—Sunári, 1549 feet; Chelá, 1450 feet; and Rosorá, 1646 feet. The only important river is the MAHANADI, which rises in Ráipur District, and, after entering Sambalpur, flows east and south-east for about 65 miles, passing Chandrapur and Padmapur, till it reaches the town of Sambalpur. It then rolls on towards the south for 45 miles, as far as Sonpur, where it bends to the east, finally falling into the sea in Orissa. As far as Chandrapur, its bed is fairly free from obstructions, but from that point to beyond Bod, boulders, *jhúú* jungle, and even trees impede its current. The principal affluents in Sambalpur are the Ib, Kelú, and Jhirá. The District is well cultivated, especially west of the Mahánadi, where, with the exception of the Bará Pahár tract, the jungle and forest have been completely cleared, nothing being left but mango, *mahua*, and other fruit-trees, and here and there a small patch of *sál*. Nearly every village has its tank, often large and deep, but nowhere faced with stone. The Bará Pahár Hills are covered with dense jungle; but scattered here and there, small villages, with a fringe of cultivation, nestle in the valleys. The *khálsa*, however, yields but little valuable timber. The chiefships contain tracts of *sál*, *sáj*, *dháurá*, *bije-sál*, and ebony; and in the Garhját States of Phuljhar and Ráirakhól spread vast forests of *sál*. In Sambalpur, the soil is generally light and sandy. Crystalline metamorphic rocks occupy the greater part of the District; but part of the north-west corner is composed of the sandstone, limestone, and shale, which cover so large an area in Chhatisgarh. In the north occur outlying patches of soft sandstone. Iron-ore is found in most of the chiefships and Garhját or Hill States, the finest quality being supplied by Ráirakhól. Sambalpur has excellent sandstone for building purposes. Limestone also abounds; and the Mahánadi, near Padmapur, contains large masses of this rock of a purity resembling marble. Gold dust is yielded by the Mahánadi and the Ib; and diamonds are occasionally found at the junction of these rivers, near an island called Hírákhudá or the Diamond Isle. In

neither case, however, is the supply such as to make the business of collecting remunerative.

History.—According to tradition, the first Rájá of Sambalpur was Balráam Deva, a brother of Narsinh Deva, the 12th Mahárájá of Patná, then the head of the Garhjá States. (*See PATNA STATE.*) Balráam Deva obtained from his brother a grant of the jungle country lying beyond the Ung, a tributary of the Mahánadi, and gradually acquired a considerable territory by conquest from the neighbouring chiefs of Sargujá, Gángpur, Bonai, and Bámrá. His eldest son, Harí Naráyan Deva, who followed in 1493, settled the country now called Sonpur on his second son, Madan Gopál, whose descendants still hold it. During the next two centuries the power of Sambalpur steadily increased, while that of Patná continued to decline. When Ubhaya Sinh succeeded, in 1732, these aggressive chiefs first came in contact with the spreading power of the Marhattás. Some guns of large calibre were passing from Cuttack up the Mahánadi, in order to be transported to Nágpur. Akbar Ráya, the minister, caused the boatmen to scuttle the boats in deep water, and many Marhattá artillerymen were drowned. Akbar Ráya subsequently recovered the guns, and had them mounted on the Sambalpur fort. The Rájá of Nágpur sent a strong detachment to avenge the insult and regain the guns, but it was repulsed with slaughter. About 1797, in the reign of Jeth Sinh, successor to Ubhaya Sinh, another quarrel with the Marhattás arose. Náná Sáhib, a relation of the Nágpur Rájá, with a large party, was making a pilgrimage to Jagannáth, when he was treacherously attacked by the people of Sárangarh and Sambalpur, as well as of Sonpur and Bod. He pushed on, however, to Cuttack, where he found some Marhattá troops. Returning with these, after some severe fighting, he took prisoner the Bod chief and Príthwí Sinh, the chief of Sonpur. As soon as the rains were over, he appeared before Sambalpur, and regularly invested the town. Jeth Sinh, however, had meantime strengthened the fort, and it was only after a five months' siege that the Náná succeeded in crossing the moat and forcing the Samláí gate. After a fierce contest, the Marhattás captured the fort, and carried off Jeth Sinh and his son Maháráj Sá as prisoners to Nágpur. Bhúp Sinh, a Marhattá *jamáddár*, was left to administer Sambalpur on behalf of the Nágpur Government. Soon, however, he assumed an independent position; and when a large force was sent from Nágpur to compel his obedience, he called in the aid of the Ráigarh and Sárangarh people, and routed the Marhattás at the Singhora Pass. A second force was sent from Nágpur, and, assisted by Chamrá Gáonthiyá, whose enmity Bhúp Sinh had provoked by plundering his village, seized the pass, and almost annihilated Bhúp Sinh's army. The conquered chief fled to Sambalpur, and, taking with him the Ránís of Jeth Sinh, made his way

to Kolábirá. While there, he implored the help of the British on behalf of the Ránís; and Captain Roughsedge, with a portion of the Rámgarh local battalion, was sent to Sambalpur in 1804. Raghojá Bhonslá, the Rájá of Nágpur, however, remonstrated with the British Government for thus interfering with a country he had fairly conquered, and the British restored Sambalpur to him. For some years, the District continued under Marhattá rule, while Jeth Sinh and his son remained in confinement at Chánda; but Major Roughsedge pleaded their cause so energetically, that in 1817 Jeth Sinh was restored to power. He died in the following year. After some months, during which the British Government held the country, Maháráj Sá, his son, was made Rájá, though without the feudal superiority of his predecessors over the other chiefships; while Major Roughsedge was established at Sambalpur as Assistant Agent. Maháráj Sá died in 1827, and his widow, Ráni Mohan Kumári, succeeded. Immediately disturbances broke out, the most prominent of the rebels being Surendra Sá and Govind Sinh, both Chauháns and pretenders to the chiefship. Villages were plundered to within a few miles of Sambalpur; and though Lieutenant Higgins drove off the rebels, it became necessary for the Agent, Captain Wilkinson, to proceed from Hazáribágh to Sambalpur. After hanging some of the insurgents, Captain Wilkinson deposed the Ráni, and set up in her place Náráyan Sinh, a descendant by a woman of inferior caste from Baliár Sihh, third Rájá of Sambalpur. Náráyan Sinh accepted his elevation very unwillingly, foreseeing the difficulties which followed immediately on the withdrawal of the British troops. Balabhadra Sá, the Gond chief of Lakhanpur, was the first to rise, but at length he was killed at his refuge in the Bará Pahár Hills. In 1839, Major Ouseley became Assistant Agent at Sambalpur; and in the same year, great disturbances occurred, caused chiefly by Surendra Sá, who claimed the throne as being descended from Madhukar Sá, fourth Rájá of Sambalpur. In 1840, he and two of his relations murdered the son and father of Daryáo Sinh, chief of Rámpur, and were sent as life prisoners to the jail of Chutiá Nágpur. In 1849, Náráyan Sinh died without male issue, and Sambalpur lapsed to the British Government. The first acts of the new rule were to raise the revenue assessments by one-fourth; and to resume the land grants, religious or otherwise. The Bráhmans, a powerful community in Sambalpur, went up in a body to Ránc hí to appeal, but gained no redress. In 1854, a second land settlement again raised the assessments everywhere by one-fourth. Such a system of exaction and confiscation produced its natural results. When the Mutiny broke out three years later, the sepoy released Surendra Sá and his brother from jail, who immediately proceeded to Sambalpur. Nearly all the chiefs at once joined them, though Govind Sinh, the rival pretender

of 1827, held aloof. Surendra Sá established himself with a large force in the ruins of the old fort, but was induced to give himself up to Captain Leigh. Soon afterwards, however, he escaped, and joined the rebels in the hills. From that time to 1862, the British troops in vain endeavoured to hunt him down. The most daring atrocities were committed by his band: villages friendly to the Government were plundered and burnt; Dr. Moore, a European officer, was murdered; and Lieutenant Woodbridge was killed in a fight on the Bará Pahár, and his head carried off. The proclamation of amnesty failed to win the submission of the rebels. In 1861, Major Impey was placed in charge at Sambalpur, and adopted a conciliatory policy. By lavish rewards to the chiefs who gave themselves up, he succeeded in dispersing the rebel band, and procuring the surrender in May 1862 of Surendra Sá himself. The next year, however, the disturbances recommenced. Sambalpur had recently been incorporated with the Central Provinces, and the opportunity was seized of the first visit of Mr. Temple, the Chief Commissioner, to present a petition praying for the restoration of native rule in the person of Surendra Sá. This was followed by the rising of Kamal Sinh, one of Surendra Sá's captains during the rebellion, and by the recurrence of aggravated outrages. At length, on 23d January 1864, Surendra Sá was finally arrested. No legal proof of his complicity with the rebels was forthcoming; but he was placed in confinement with some of his relations and adherents as a dangerous political offender, and since then profound peace has reigned throughout the District.

Population.—The Native States attached to Sambalpur District are elsewhere noticed in their respective places. (See KAROND, SONPUR, RAIRAKHOL, RAIGARH, BAMRA, PATNA, and SARANGARH.) The following statistics will therefore be confined to the *khálsa* country—the British District. A rough enumeration of the population was taken in 1866, but its results cannot be relied on in this District. The more careful Census of 1872 disclosed a population of 523,034 persons. Although the latest estimate (1877) indicates a total of 549,714, the Census of 1872 still remains the only basis for a detailed examination of the people. It showed, as already stated, a population of 523,034 persons, residing on an area of 4407 square miles, in 1710 villages or townships and 98,166 houses. Persons per square mile, 118·68; villages per square mile, 0·39; houses per square mile, 22·27; persons per village, 305·87; persons per house, 5·32. Classified according to sex—males, 264,847; females, 258,187. According to age, the male children in 1877 numbered 98,954, the female children 96,542. Ethnical division in 1877—Europeans, 9; Eurasians, 12; aboriginal tribes, 184,715; Hindus, 362,739; Muhammadans, 2255. There are no Buddhists or Jains, and the Muhammadans constitute

less than 0.5 per cent. of the population, a proportion smaller than in any other District of the Central Provinces. The most numerous of the aboriginal tribes are the Savars (53,603 in 1872) and the Gonds (43,687), the remainder consisting of Kols, Bhils, Binjwals, Khonds, etc. Among the Hindus, in 1872, Bráhmans numbered 17,552; the mass of the Hindu population consisting of Gauris (60,026), Gandas (57,425), Koltas (54,258), Keuts (22,233), Telis (15,350), and other cultivating or inferior castes. Native Christians in 1877, 4. No town in Sambalpur District has a population exceeding 5000, with the exception of SAMBALPUR, the administrative headquarters (pop. in 1872, 11,020). Number of townships with from 1000 to 5000 inhabitants, 90; with from 200 to 1000, 65; villages with fewer than 200 inhabitants, 964. Sambalpur, the only municipality, had in 1876-77 a population within municipal limits of 11,695. The income for that year amounted to £480, of which £353 was derived from taxation, being 6½d. per head; the expenditure was £506.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 4407 square miles, only 2089 are cultivated; and of the portion lying waste, 746 are returned as cultivable. None of the land is irrigated. The Government assessment is at the rate of 4d. per acre of cultivated land, and 1½d. per acre of cultivable land. Rice forms the staple crop, and in 1876 occupied 990,590 acres. No wheat was grown, but other food grains were produced on 212,250 acres; while 67,100 acres were devoted to oil-seeds, 56,500 to cotton, and 10,520 to sugar-cane. The Census of 1872 showed a total of 2241 proprietors, of whom 1706 were classed as 'inferior' ones. The tenants numbered 47,522, of whom 44,381 had either absolute or occupancy rights, while only 3141 were tenants-at-will. The rent rates per acre for the different qualities of land were returned as follows in 1876:—Land suited for rice, 1s.; for inferior grain, cotton, oil-seeds, or sugar-cane, 3d. The ordinary prices of produce per cwt. were—rice, 3s. 8d.; gram, 3s. 5d.; cotton, 27s. 4d. The wages per diem for skilled labour averaged 7½d.; for unskilled labour, 3d.

Trade and Commerce.—The manufactures of Sambalpur are few and unimportant. The Koshtís, however, weave *tasar* silk cloth of an even texture and unfading lustre; and the Kánwárs manufacture vessels of brass and bell metal. Nearly every village also contains weavers of coarse cotton cloth, and the Sonárs make rude ornaments of gold and silver. The principal exports from the District are rice, oil-seeds, raw sugar, stick-lac, *tasar* silk, cotton, and iron. Principal imports—salt, refined sugar, European piece-goods, cocoa-nuts, muslins, fine cloths of native make, and metals. The chief trade is with Cuttack and Mirzápur. In the Orissa famine of 1866-67, no less than 30,178 *maunds* (about 1100 tons) of rice, valued at £10,171, were exported to Cuttack. None of the roads in Sambalpur is bridged or metalled. The chief

lines of communication are the roads from Sambalpur town to Raipur *viâ* Sankrâ on the Jonk river; and to Cuttack *viâ* Rairâkhol and Angûl. Tracks also lead from Sambalpur to the Bilâspur frontier, by Padmapur and Chandrapur, to Bînka, and towards Râncî. The Mahânadi affords means of communication by water for 90 miles.

Administration.—In 1861, Sambalpur was formed into a separate District of the British Government of the Central Provinces. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with Assistants and *tahsildars*. Total revenue in 1876-77, £19,560, of which the land yielded £8869. Total cost of District officials and police of all kinds, £10,921; number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts within the District, 6; magistrates, 8. Maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 60 miles; average distance, 25 miles. Number of police, 335, costing £5404; being 1 policeman to about every 12 miles and every 1398 inhabitants. The daily average number of convicts in jail in 1876 was 98, of whom 9 were females. The total cost of the jails in that year was £582. The number of Government or aided schools in the District under Government inspection was 276, attended by 12,348 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—The average temperature in the shade at the civil station during 1876 is returned as follows:—May, highest reading 114° 5' F., lowest 44° F.; July, highest 108° 5' F., lowest 73° F.; December, highest 92° F., lowest 42° F. The rainfall for that year amounted to 61·57 inches, the average being 55·76 inches. The climate of Sambalpur is considered very unhealthy. The prevailing disease is fever, especially from September to November. It proves most fatal to new-comers, natives as well as Europeans. Bowel complaints are also common and deadly, and cholera appears nearly every hot season, owing to the gatherings at the temple of Jagannâth at Purl. In 1876, two charitable dispensaries afforded medical relief to 11,055 in-door and out-door patients. The death-rate per thousand was returned at 25·18, the mean of the previous five years being 20·76, but these figures cannot be trusted.

Sambalpur.—*Tahsil* or Subdivision of Sambalpur District, Central Provinces. Area, 1684 square miles; pop. (1872), 224,576, residing in 624 villages or townships and 41,431 houses.

Sambalpur.—Principal town and administrative headquarters of Sambalpur District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 11,020. The town is situated in lat. 21° 27' 10" N., and long. 84° 1' E., on the north bank of the Mahânadi, which, during the rainy season, becomes nearly a mile broad, but at other times flows in a small stream 50 yards in width. Opposite the town and station, the river bed is a mass of rocks covered with thick *jhâû* jungle; on each side the banks are richly wooded with mango and other groves, while to the south rises a stately background

of lofty hills. The town proper has been much improved since 1864, when a cart could only with great difficulty pass through the main street. To the north-west lie the ruins of the fort—a crumbling stone wall on the river face, and a few mouldering bastions. The moat can still be traced; but no gateway remains except that of Samláí, near the temple of the goddess of that name, who was apparently the tutelary divinity of Sambalpur. Within the fort stand several other temples, the principal of which are those of Padmeswari Devi, Bará Jagannáth, and Anant Sajjá, all built during the 16th century. They are of uniform design, and remarkable neither for elegance nor solidity. Beyond the fort extends the Bará Bázár, originally a mere market-place, but now a populous suburb. Besides the Government court-house and the Subdivisional office on the river bank, the principal buildings are the Commissioner's circuit-house, post office, a jail lately built on the standard plan, and 2 *saráis*, as well as a handsome terrace-roofed market-place. A native gentleman has lately built a dispensary with female wards, and a District schoolhouse. Till recently, cholera visited the town almost every year, owing chiefly to the influx of pilgrims returning from Jagannáth. Of late, however, sanitary precautions have done much to prevent the epidemic, and the increase of vaccination is gradually restraining the ravages of small-pox. Municipal revenue in 1876-77, £480; incidence of taxation, 7½d. per head.

Sambhal.—*Tahsil* of Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces, lying in the plain country between the Sot and the Ganges. Area, 463 square miles, of which 344 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 227,011; land revenue, £29,119; total Government revenue, £29,623; rental paid by cultivators, £62,502; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 11½d.

Sambhal.—Municipal town in Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsil*. Pop. (1872), 46,974, consisting of 18,417 Hindus and 28,547 Muhammadans. Stands in lat. 28° 35' 5" N., and long. 78° 36' 30" E., on the Aligarh road, 22 miles south-west of Moradábád town, and 4 miles west of the Sot river, in the midst of a cultivated and well-wooded plain. The modern town covers the summit of an extensive mound, composed of remains and débris of the ancient city. Two heaps of ruins, known as Bhaleswar and Bikteswar, mark the old bastions of the city wall. Headquarters of the Musalmán Government from the earliest period of Muhammandan supremacy. Capital of a *sarkár* under Akbar. Centre of local grain trade. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £2138; from taxes, £1662, or 11½d. per head of population (34,871) within municipal limits.

Sámbar.—Lake in Jáipur (Jeypore) State, Rájputána. It lies between 26° 52' and 27° 2' N. lat., and between 74° 57' and 75° 16' E. long., and is situated on the joint border of the Jáipur and Jodhpur

States, east of the Aravalli range of hills. The surrounding country is arid and sterile, being composed of rocks abounding in limestone and salt, and belonging to the Permian system; and it is supposed that the salt of the lake is derived from the washings of these rocks. The bottom consists of a tenacious black mud, resting on loose sand. When full, the lake forms a sheet of water measuring about 20 miles in length, from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles in breadth, and from 1 to 4 feet in depth. After the rains, in August and September, the waters of the lake begin to evaporate, and this process goes on almost uninterruptedly from October to June. During the ten years, 1835 to 1844, the Government of India, in order to repay itself a portion of the expenses incurred in repelling the predatory incursions of the Rájputs into British territory, took the salt-making into its own hands; but with this exception, the lake has been owned and worked jointly by the Jáipur and Jodhpur Governments from the 17th century to 1870, when the British Government became lessees under separate treaties concluded with the Jáipur and Jodhpur chiefs. The average yearly out-turn of salt is 900,000 *maunds* (between 3000 and 4000 tons), and the cost of storage and extraction about 6 *pies* (three farthings) a *maund* ($82\frac{2}{7}$ lbs. av.). As soon as the salt is formed, native labourers of both sexes, belonging chiefly to the Barrár caste, wade out to it through the mud, and placing their hands under the salt crust, lift it off in good-sized cakes into baskets. A man brings to shore in this way about half a ton of salt a day. The salt is of three colours, blue, white, and red, the varieties being said to be due to the presence of microscopic algae. The bluish grey salt is commonest, and is much esteemed, particularly in the North-Western Provinces, whither it is largely exported. The white salt is most valued in Rájputána, particularly in Jáipur; while in the Muhammadan State of Tonk, the red is the favourite colour. The lake supplies nearly the whole of the chief salt marts of the Punjab, North-Western Provinces, and Central India. According to travellers in the early part of this century, the dimensions of the lake were larger than they are at present, and reached as much as 50 miles in length by 10 in breadth during periods of heavy rain.

Sambhuganj.—Town in Maimansinh District, Bengal; 3 miles east of Nasirábád. Pop. (1872), 2257. One of the busiest marts in the District for country produce of all kinds; large exports of jute. In 1876-77, the registered exports from Sambhuganj included 72,000 *maunds* of jute (mostly sent direct to Calcutta), 31,000 *maunds* of rice, and 9500 *maunds* of mustard seed. Seat of the court of the subordinate judge of Mádárganj.

Sameswari (*Someswari*, or *Samsáng*).—River in the Gáro Hills, Assam. Rising near the station of Turá, it flows first in an easterly direction along the north of the Turá range, and then turns south

through a picturesque gorge and finds its way into the plains in the Bengal District of Maimansinh. It finally empties itself into the Kanks river in *parganá* Susáng. Both in size and utility, the Sameswari is the most important river in the Gáro Hills. It is navigable upwards as high as Siju, about 20 miles within the hills. Here its channel is interrupted by a bed of granite rocks and rapids. In several other portions of its course it again becomes navigable for canoes. Valuable outcrops of coal have been discovered and surveyed in the Sameswari valley, but none has yet been worked. Limestone of good quality abounds on the river banks, and there are some curious caverns in the limestone formation. In its upper course are several magnificent gorges, with rocky cliffs, clothed in tropical vegetation. The water swarms with fish, including the excellent *máhsir*; and the Gáros are enthusiastic fishermen.

Sami.—Town in Ráadhanpur State, Bombay; situated on the river Saraswatí, in lat. $23^{\circ} 41' 15''$ N., and long. $71^{\circ} 50'$ E. Pop. (1872), 5486.

Sámnagar.—Town in the Twenty-four Parganá District, Bengal.—*See* SYAMNAGAR.

Sampaji Ghát.—One of the passes connecting South Kánara District, Madras, with Coorg. Good road; practicable for wheeled carriages.

Sámpla.—*Tahsil* of Rohtak District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 144,067; persons per square mile, 336.

Sámpla.—Town in Rohtak District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsil* of the same name; situated in lat. $28^{\circ} 47'$ N., and long. $76^{\circ} 49'$ E., on the Rohtak and Delhi road, half-way between Rohtak town and Bahádurgarh. *Tahsili*, police station, and post office.

Sámra.—Town in Agra District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. $27^{\circ} 6'$ N., long. $77^{\circ} 36' 25''$ E.

Samrah Babdahá.—Town in Champáran District, Bengal. Pop. (1872), 5571.

Samrála.—*Tahsil* in Ludhiána District, Punjab.

Sámthar (*Samphar*, *Sumpter*).—Native State in Bundelkhand, under the political superintendence of the Bundelkhand Agency and the Central India Agency; lying between $25^{\circ} 42'$ and $25^{\circ} 57'$ N. lat., and between $78^{\circ} 51'$ and $79^{\circ} 11'$ E. long. Area, 175 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 108,000; estimated revenue, £40,000. Sámthar is bounded on the north and west by Gwalior; on the south-west, south, and south-east by the British District of Jhánsi; and on the east by Jaláun District. The State of Sámthar was separated from Datiya only one generation previous to the British occupation of Bundelkhand. When the British first entered the Province, Rájá Ranjít Sinh requested to be taken into the friendship and under the protection of the British Government; but nothing definite was done till 1817, when a treaty

was concluded with him. The chief is entitled to a salute of 11 guns. He has received the right of adoption. The military forces of the State are 300 cavalry and 2000 infantry, with 35 guns and 150 gunners.

Sámthar.—Chief town of Sámthar State, Bundelkhand. Lat. $25^{\circ} 51' N.$, long. $78^{\circ} 55' E.$

Sámulkota (*Chámarlakota*).—Town in Godávari District, Madras; situated in lat. $17^{\circ} 3' 10'' N.$, and long. $82^{\circ} 12' 50'' E.$, 7 miles north of Coconada. Pop. (1871), 5535, inhabiting 1782 houses. It was formerly a military station, but was abandoned in January 1869. The barracks, first built in 1786, still remain. Sámulkota is connected by canals with Rájámahendri (Rajahmundry) and Coconada.

Sanala.—One of the petty States of Undsarviya, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £270; £30 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and 30s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Sánand.—Chief town of the Sáhand Subdivision of Ahmedábád District, Bombay; situated 16 miles west of Ahmedábád city, in lat. $22^{\circ} 59' N.$, and long. $72^{\circ} 25' 30'' E.$ Pop. (1872), 7229. Sánand is a station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway line, 18 miles from Ahmedábád. Post office and dispensary.

Sanáwan.—Northern *tahsil* of Muzaffargarh District, Punjab; consisting of a high central upland, almost barren, known as the *thal*, together with two strips of lowland along the banks of the Indus and the Chenáb. Area, 1330 square miles; pop. (1868), 75,172; persons per square mile, 56.

Sanáwar.—Plot of land in Simla District, Punjab. Made over by the British Government in 1852 as the site of the Lawrence Military Asylum. That building stands in lat. $30^{\circ} 54' 35'' N.$, and long. $77^{\circ} 2' 10'' E.$, on a hill facing Kasauli, from which it is 3 miles distant.

Sánchi.—Village in the Native State of BHOPAL; situated on the left bank of the Betwa river, about $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-west of Bhílsa, and 20 miles north-east of the city of Bhopál. Sánchi is famous as the site of some of the most extensive and remarkable Buddhist remains in India, the centre of the great group described by General Cunningham under the name of '*The Bhílsa Topes*.'

The present village of Sánchi is situated on a low ridge of sandstone, the general direction of which is from north to south, the whole summit of the hill being covered with ruins. The hill is flat-topped and isolated, with a steep cliff to the eastward, and to the westward an easy slope, covered with jungle at the foot, and near the top broken into steps by horizontal ledges of rock.

The principal buildings which now remain occupy only the middle part of the level top, and a narrow belt leading down the hill to the

westward. They consist of one great *stupa* or *tope*, with its railing and other adjuncts; about ten smaller *stupas*, some now showing nothing more than the foundations; a stone bowl, $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet in diameter and $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet deep, supposed to have once contained Buddha's holy nettle, and other objects of antiquarian interest. The summit of the hill, on which these remains are found, has a gentle slope in the same direction as the dip of the strata; and the level of the court of the great *stupa* is some 12 or 15 feet below that of a ruined *vihāra* and temple on the eastern edge of the precipice. The hill, which is about 300 feet in height, is formed of a light red sandstone, hard and compact in texture, but subject to split. This stone has been used for all the *topes* and other buildings where mere hardness and durability were required; but for the colonnades and sculptured gateways, a fine-grained white sandstone was brought from the Udāyagiri Hill, $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles to the northward. The village is now very small; but the numerous ruins scattered over the hill between Sānchi and Kānakhera show that there once was a large town on this site.

Fergusson (*History of Indian and Eastern Architecture*, 1876, page 61) thus writes of this group of remains:—

'The principal of these, known as the Great *Tope* at Sānchi, has been frequently described, the smaller ones are known from General Cunningham's descriptions only; but altogether they have excited so much attention that they are perhaps better known than any group in India. We are not, however, perhaps justified in assuming, from the greater extent of this group as now existing, that it possessed the same pre-eminence in Buddhist times. If we could now see the *topes* that once adorned any of the great Buddhist sites in the Doāb or Behar, the Bhilsa group might sink into insignificance. It may only be that, situated in a remote and thinly peopled part of India, they have not been exposed to the destructive energy of opposing sects of the Hindu religion, and the bigoted Moslem has not wanted their materials for the erection of his mosques. They consequently remain to us, while it may be that nobler and more extensive groups of monuments have been swept from the face of the earth.

'Notwithstanding all that has been written about them, we know very little that is certain regarding their object and their history. Our usual guides, the Chinese Pilgrims, fail us here. Fa-Hian never was within some hundreds of miles of the place; and if Hiouen Tshang ever was there, it was after leaving Ballabhi (Valabhi), when his journal becomes so wild and curt that it is difficult, sometimes impossible, to follow him. He has, at all events, left no description by which we can now identify the place, and nothing to tell us for what purpose the Great *Tope* or any of the smaller ones were erected. The *Mahāwanso*, it is true, helps us a little in our difficulties. It is there narrated

that Asoka when on his way to Ujjain, of which place he had been nominated governor, tarried some time at Chétyagiri, or, as it is elsewhere called, Wessanagara, the modern Bís-nagar, close to Sánchi. He there married Devi, the daughter of the chief, and by her had twin sons, Ujjenio and Mahindo, and afterwards a daughter, Sanghamitta. The two last-named entered the priesthood, and played a most important part in the introduction of Buddhism into Ceylon. Before setting out on this mission, Mahindo visited his royal mother at Chétyagiri, and was lodged in "a superb *vihára*," which had been erected by herself. In all this there is no mention of the Great Tope, which may have existed before that time; but till some building is found in India which can be proved to have existed before that age, it will be safe to assume that this is one of the 84,000 topes said to have been erected by Asoka. Had Sánchi been one of the eight cities which obtained relics of Buddha at the funeral pyre, the case might have been different; but it has been dug into, and found to be a *stupa*, and not a *daghoba*. It consequently was erected to mark some sacred spot or to commemorate some event, and we have no reason to believe that this was done anywhere before Asoka's time.

'On the other hand, two smaller topes on the same platform contained relics of an undoubted historical character. That called No. 2 Tope contained those of ten Buddhist teachers who took part in the third great convocation held under Asoka, and some of whom were sent on missions to foreign countries, to disseminate the doctrines then settled; and No. 3 Tope contained two relic caskets. One of these enclosed relics of Maha Moggalana, the other of Sariputra, friends and companions of Buddha himself, and usually called his right and left hand disciples. It does not of course follow that this *daghoba* is as old as the time of Buddha; on the contrary, some centuries must elapse before a bone or rag belonging to any mortal becomes so precious that a dome is erected to enshrine it. The great probability seems to be that these relics were deposited there by Asoka himself, in close proximity to the sacred spot, which the Great Tope was erected to commemorate. The tope containing relics of his contemporaries must of course be much more modern, probably contemporary with the gateways, which are subsequent to the Christian era.'

Sándi.—*Parganá* in Hardoi District, Oudh. Bounded on the north and west by *parganá*s Báwan, Barwán, and Katiári; on the south-west and south by the Ganges and *parganá* Bilgrám; and on the east by *parganá* Bangar. The *parganá* is intersected by the Garra river from north to south, and the Rám-ganga flows irregularly along or near its western and south-western border. It is divided into two distinct portions by an irregular sandy ridge, which, running from north to south immediately to the east of Sándi town, marks the bank of an ancient

channel of the Ganges, long since abandoned by the river in its gradual westward recession. All the villages on and to the east of this ridge are poor, uneven, and sandy. Irrigation is scanty and difficult. On the other hand, all the country to the west of the ridge, or about four-fifths of the total area of the *parganá*, is a distinctly alluvial tract, levelled and enriched by the floods of three Himálayan rivers, the Garra, Rám-ganga, and the Ganges, and by minor streams such as the Sendha. All this tract is *tardí*, that is to say, it has been scooped by fluvial action out of the adjacent *bangar* or original plateau; and in it the water level is always so near the surface that in the dry months percolation largely supplies the want of irrigation, while in the rainy season it is more or less completely flooded. It constitutes, in fact, the flood basin of the three rivers named above. In heavy floods such as those of 1871, a sea of waters spread from Sándi to Fatehgarh, 20 miles west. The rivers bring down a rich alluvial deposit locally called *seo*, which fertilizes the submerged fields and makes manuring unnecessary. The silt brought down by the Rám-ganga in heavy floods is sometimes spread 2 feet thick over the fields. Area, 168 square miles, of which 107 square miles are cultivated. Chief products—wheat, barley, rice, *bájr*, gram, *joár*, and *arhar*. Pop. (1869), 69,751, namely, 64,252 Hindus and 5499 Muhammadans. Of the 141 villages comprising the *parganá*, 80½ are held by Kshattriyas, 26 by Muhammadans, 11½ by Bráhmans, 5½ by Iodhs, 4 by Káyasths, 1½ by Ahirs, and 12 by Government. *Tálukdári* tenure prevails in 30½ villages, *samindári* in 61½, and *pattidári* in 49. Government land revenue, £12,721; equal to an average of 3s. 9½d. per cultivated acre, or 2s. 4½d. per acre of total area.

Sándi.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh, and headquarters of Sándi *parganá*; situated on the left bank of the Garra river, on the old route from Sháhjahánpur *viá* Sháhábád to Lucknow. Lat. 27° 17' 15" N., long. 79° 59' 45" E. A considerable town, with a population (1869) of 11,123. It has a local reputation for the manufacture of a description of cotton carpets (*kalin*). Station of the opium department. Numerous handsome mosques and tombs of Muhammadan saints. A fine *sarái* or travellers' rest-house is situated in the market in the Nawábganj quarter of the town.

Sandila.—*Tahsil* or Subdivision of Hardoi District, Oudh, lying between 26° 53' and 27° 21' N. lat., and between 80° 18' and 80° 52' E. long. Bounded on the north by Hardoi and Misrikh, on the east by Mahmudábád, on the south by Malihábád and Mohán, and on the west by Bilgrám *tahsils*. Area, 557 square miles, of which 317 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 230,300, namely, Hindus, 204,438, and Muhammadans, 25,862. Number of males, 121,340; of females, 108,960; number of villages or towns, 416; average density of population, 413.

This *tahsil* comprises the four *parganás* of Sandíla, Kalyánmal, Bálamau, and Gundwa.

Sandíla.—*Parganá* of Hardoi District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Gopámau; on the east by Gundwa and Kalyánmal; on the south and south-west by Mohán, Aurás, Safipur, and Bangarmau; on the west by Bálamau and Mallanwán *parganás*. A poorly wooded tract, with a large area of barren and sandy soil. Area, 329 square miles, of which 170 square miles are cultivated. Chief products—barley, wheat, *bájra*, gram, *arhar*, *mash*, and *joár*. At the time of the survey, barley occupied a fourth of the cultivated area; wheat a fifth; *bájra* and gram together, rather more than a fifth; while another fifth was cropped with *arhar*, *mash*, *joár*, and rice. Other crops—cotton, sugar-cane, poppy, tobacco, and indigo. Pop. (1869), 137,275, viz. Hindus, 117,371, and Muhammadans, 19,904. Of the 213 villages comprising the *parganá*, 82 are held by Kshattriyas, 81 by Muhammadans, 41 by Káyasths, 5 by Bráhmans, 2 by Kurmis, and 1 each by Kalwárs and Lodhs. *Tálukdári* tenure obtains in 114 villages, 70 are *zamíndári*, 26 imperfect *pattidári*, and 3 *bháyáchára*. Government land revenue, £19,255; equal to an average of 3s. 6½d. per cultivated acre, or 1s. 9½d. per acre of total area. The principal land-holding families are Sayyid Musalmáns.

Sandíla.—Town in Hardoi District, and headquarters of Sandíla *tahsil* and *parganá*; situated 32 miles north-west of Lucknow, and 34 miles south-east of Hardoi town. Lat. 27° 4' 15" N., long. 80° 33' 20" E. The sixth largest town in Oudh, and the second largest in Hardoi District; pop. (1869), 15,786, viz. Hindus, 7629, and Muhammadans 8157, residing in 1114 masonry and 3986 mud-built houses. The town contains the usual Subdivisional civil and criminal courts, police station, dispensary, and Anglo-vernacular school. No buildings of special interest or antiquity. The *bára kambha* or hall of twelve pillars, a stone building, was erected about 150 years ago. Markets are held twice a week, at which *pán* and *ghí* are sold for export in considerable quantities. Station on the Oudh and Rohilkhand line of railway. During the Sepoy Mutiny, two severe actions were fought at Sandíla on the 6th and 7th October 1858.

Sandoway (*Than-dwai*).—A British District in the Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 3667 square miles; pop. (1872), 54,725 souls. Bounded on the north by the Ma-f river, separating it from Kyouk-hpyú District; on the east by the Arakan Mountains; on the south by the Khwa river; and on the west by the Bay of Bengal. Its extreme length is 136 miles; its breadth in the north 48, and in the south 24 miles. The administrative headquarters are at SANDOWAY TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—Sandoway District is a mountainous country, the Arakan range sending out spurs which reach down to the coast. These

in their turn give off numerous sub-spurs, running for the most part parallel to the main chain. Not more than one-eighteenth of the area can be called plain; and except in this plain, and on the hillsides, where clearings are made for *toungya* or nomadic cultivation, the District is covered with dense forest. From the mouth of the Sandoway river northwards, the coast is indented with navigable and intercommunicating tidal creeks, by means of which communication can be kept up without going out to sea. Southwards, it presents a rugged and rocky barrier to the ocean, and has few available harbours. The rivers draining the District are but mountain torrents to within a few miles of the coast. The principal of these are—the Ma-í and the Tan-lwai, falling into the arm of the sea which divides Ramri (Ramree) island from the mainland; the Toung-gúp (Toung-goop), which enters the Bay of Bengal by several mouths, between lat. $18^{\circ} 44'$ and $18^{\circ} 50'$ N.; the Sandoway, a tidal river, navigable by the largest boats as far as Sandoway town; the Khwa, which falls into the sea in about lat. $17^{\circ} 36'$ N., forming a good anchorage for steamers and vessels drawing from 9 to 10 feet of water, though the entrance is rendered difficult by rocks and a sandy bar. The main range of the Arakan Yomas has in the north a direction south-east by south, but it gradually curves towards the west, and, at the source of the Khwa, runs nearly due north and south. In the north, some of the peaks attain an elevation of little less than 5000 feet, which falls to 3200 feet at Shouk-beng, where the Toung-gúp road crosses the range. South of lat. $18^{\circ} 21' 26''$ N., the height rapidly diminishes, and at the sources of the Khwa is only about 890 feet. The chief pass is that from Toung-gúp to Pa-doung on the Irawadi (Irrawaddy) in Prome District, a route followed by the main body of the Burmese in their invasion of Arakan in 1784, but found impracticable for troops or laden cattle in 1825-26. Since then, the road has been considerably widened, and rendered fit for the passage of an armed force. It is now mostly used by traders from Pegu, and the telegraph line to Calcutta is carried along it. Another pass connects Khwa with Le-myet-hna in Bassein. The three most important timber-trees found in the District are—*pyeng-gado*, used in house-building and for railway sleepers; *eng* and *ka-gnyeng*, from which are extracted resin and oil respectively. *Pyeng-ma*, *theng-gan*, *ka-gnyoung*, and many other trees abound. The low ground within tidal limits is covered with dense mangrove jungle. Owing to the wild and inaccessible character of the greater portion of Sandoway District, its geological structure has received very cursory examination. The existence of cretaceous rocks was first established in 1872. Mr. Theobald says that they extend down from Kyouk-hpyú District, in lat. $29^{\circ} 30'$ N., certainly as far as Kyien-ta-li in Sandoway, a distance of 94 miles. Limestone occurs about 4 miles south-south-west of Ma-í, where it is quarried

and burnt for local use. The rock is argillaceous, very homogeneous in grain, and occasionally seamed with calcite. Other outcrops, also belonging to the cretaceous age, are found in various parts of the District. Limestone, intermixed with the tertiary clays and sands of the lower lands, is abundant and very pure; yielding on analysis carbonate of lime (with traces of iron), 93·6 per cent.; insoluble clay, 6·4. Veins of steatite and white fibrous quartz also occur in the District.

History.—According to the palm-leaf chronicles, there reigned in Baranathi (Benares), at a time when the duration of human life was 90 millions of years, a descendant of the first Buddha of the present epoch, who had sixteen sons; to the eldest of whom, Tha-mú-ti-de-wa, was allotted the country now forming Sandoway District. For him the spirits or Nats built a city, Dwa-ra-wad-dí, near the modern Sandoway. Many ages later, Tsek-kya-wad-dí, the embryo Gautama Buddha, was King of Baranathi; and to his son, Kan-myeng, he gave all the lands inhabited by the Burmese, Shan, and Malay races. Kan-myeng came to Dwa-ra-wad-dí; dispossessed the descendant of Tha-mú-ti-de-wa, and was succeeded by kings of his own line, who ruled for a period represented by a unit followed by 140 ciphers. During the reign of Na-rien-da, the last of these monarchs, the country was attacked by the grandsons of a king who ruled in Mo-goung. The legend runs thus:—Arriving at the mouth of the Than-dwai (Sandoway) river, they failed in their attempts to find the city, owing to the devices of its guardian Bhí-lú-ma, or, as some say, to its miraculous power of soaring above the earth in times of danger. At length, the guardian, being propitiated, withdrew her protection, and the ten brothers then bound the city to the earth with an iron chain, and divided their conquest into ten shares, making Than-dwai ('iron-bound') their capital. But the eight younger brothers were slain in combat with the people, who appear to have risen against them, and the two elder fled. Henceforth Sandoway appears only as a province of the Arakan kingdom, ravaged alternately by the Burmese and Talaings until the conquest of Arakan by the Burmese in 1784. It was then formed into a governorship, and its *won* was one of the commanders of the Burmese army which invaded Bengal at the commencement of the first Anglo-Burmese war. The country was ceded to the British by the treaty of Yandabú (Yendaboo), in 1826; and on the withdrawal of General Morrison's army, one regiment of Native infantry was left at Sandoway. A few years later, the military headquarters were transferred to Kyouk-hpyú, and subsequently the small detachment of two companies was also withdrawn.

Antiquities.—On the hills close to Sandoway are three small white-washed pagodas, the An-daw, Nan-daw, and Tshan-daw. The An-daw

is said to have been erected in 761 A.D. by King Meng-tsek-khyú, to cover a tooth of Gautama. The building is 242 feet in circumference and 63 feet high. The Nan-daw stands on a hill, and is 480 feet above the level of the plain, and 38 feet high; it is said to have been built in 763 A.D. by Meng-bra, to enshrine a rib of Gautama. The Tshan-daw is assigned to Meng-gnyo-kheng (784 A.D.), and covers a hair of Gautama brought from Ceylon. Three times a year, pilgrims resort to these pagodas, remaining one day at each temple on each occasion. Two stones inscribed in Sanskrit of the 8th century have been found near the Sandoway river. Silver coins struck by ancient kings of Arakan are occasionally met with, some of which have the dates and names in Burmese characters, whilst others bear Persian or Nágari inscriptions. Celts or stone implements are abundant.

Population.—Mountainous and forest-clad, the District seems to have been always sparsely inhabited, but the increase of population since the British occupation has, on the whole, been proportionately larger than in other parts of Arakan. In 1828, the number of inhabitants was 19,538; by 1852, it had risen to 42,886; and in 1872, the Census year, to 54,725, including 19,188 Burmese, 28,339 Arakanese, 2021 Muhammadans, 4731 Khyengs, 24 Shans, 171 Karengs, 86 Hindus, 16 Europeans, and 149 'others.' The number of travellers and sojourners was given at 3413, not included in the returns. The population in 1877 was returned at 56,782, of whom 29,256 were males and 27,526 females. There are no towns in the District with more than 2000 inhabitants, and by far the greater number of villages have fewer than 200; 62 only having from 200 to 400, and 4 from 500 to 1000 inhabitants. These are nearly all situated in the country between the sea-coast and the slopes of the Arakan Yomas. The chief places in the District are—SANDOWAY, the administrative headquarters, situated on the river of the same name, and containing the usual public buildings; pop. (1877), 1617. TOUNG-GUP (Toung-goop), on the Toung-gúp river, and headquarters of a township; pop. (1877), 1551. KHWA, a small trading village, with a population of 1029; KYIEN-TA-LI, a small village at the mouth of the river of the same name.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of the District, viz. 3667 square miles, only 135 square miles are returned as cultivable, and about 72 as under actual cultivation. The chief crops are rice, sesamum, tobacco, cotton, pepper, sugar-cane, *dhani* palms, and yams. In 1877-78, the area under the various crops was as follows:—Rice, 34,468 acres; oil-seeds, 924; sugar-cane, 264; cotton, 522; vegetables, 629; *dhani* palms, 1862; other trees, 1428; and tobacco, 1876. Land suited for rice yields on an average 940 lbs. per acre. Sesamum and cotton are grown principally with rice in *toungya* or hill gardens. The cultivation of tobacco is extending; the best is grown on the alluvial soil deposited

during the south-west monsoon by the torrents of the Yoma range in their short course to the sea. The Cuba plant was introduced by Captain (now Sir A. P.) Phayre and Captain (now Lieutenant-General) Fytche, and thrives well; but it is considered by the natives inferior in flavour to their own tobacco, which is said to have been originally brought from China. Madder is produced near the Khwa, and the cultivation is very profitable; it is exported to Bassein. As an almost universal rule, the land in the plains is held by small proprietors directly from the State; the average size of the holdings is 5 acres. Land is not often mortgaged, but very high interest is charged for loans. If a large amount is required, the land is generally made over to the mortgagee for several years for the payment of a lump sum, on which no other interest is charged. Labourers engaged for ploughing receive 2 rupees, or 4s., per acre and their food; and when hired for transplanting or reaping, a bushel of grain per diem. When land is leased out, the rent is almost invariably paid in kind, and averages one-third of the yield. In 1877-78, the average price of cotton per *maund* of 80 lbs. was 12s.; rice, 3s.; sugar, 19s. 9d.; salt, 2s. 3d.; tobacco, £1, 16s.

Manufactures, etc.—The most important manufacture is thatch from the leaves of the Nipa palm, which is in great demand in Akyab and Kyouk-hpyú, as well as locally. Cotton cloth and silk dresses are woven by the women in almost every house. The silk used is obtained from the southern township, where silk-worms are bred, and from the valley of the Irawadi. There is a large export trade with Akyab, Kyouk-hpyú, and Bassein in rice, tobacco, sesamum, plantains, salt, salt-fish, *nga-pi* or fish paste, and boats. The imports consist of piece-goods, cotton twist, betel-nuts, crockery, and hardware. The total length of water communication in Sandoway District is 130 miles; of roads, 13½ miles.

Administration.—During the Burmese rule, the only regular revenue was derived from transit dues and a tax on land. Five baskets (each holding 40 lbs.) of grain in the husk were taken for each pair of buffaloes used, and half a basket was claimed by the keeper of the royal granary as 'wastage.' But there was no fixed rate, and the governors often exacted more. In 1828, it was calculated that every head of a family paid £1, 15s. a year to the Government, whilst the annual cost of living for four persons was only £4, 4s. In 1851, the revenue amounted to £8362; in 1871, to £11,744, including local funds. In 1877-78, the imperial revenue was £14,423; the local revenue, £580. The incidence of taxation of all kinds was 3s. 0½d. per head. In Burmese times, the country was administered by a *won* or governor, under whom were the *tsit-ke*, *myo-úk thúgyí*, and other subordinates. It appears from the records at Sandoway

that the *thúgyi* generally levied their demands thus:—(1) From married people, well off, with families, bond servants, cattle, etc., £1, 14s.; married people not so well off, £1, 10s.; married people dependent upon their own labour, or too old for work, and newly married people with means, 18s.; newly married people with little or no substance, 7s. *Hpúngyi*, the maimed and infirm, Government servants, and bachelors, were exempt from taxation. For some time after the British occupation, the country was in a disturbed state. It has now settled down into a peaceful District, administered by a Deputy Commissioner with extensive judicial powers, and the chief revenue authority under the Commissioner of the Division. Under him are the extra-Assistant Commissioners. The regular police consisted in 1877 of 226 officers and men, or about 1 policeman to every 18 square miles or every 267 inhabitants. There is a jail at Sandoway; the number of prisoners in 1877 was 164. The total cost was £1732, and the work done by prisoners realized £173. The hospital and civil dispensary are also at the headquarters town, and gave relief in 1876 to 85 in-door and 1873 out-door patients. Little education has, till lately, been given except by the Buddhist monks. The Census of 1872 showed that only 7·45 per cent. of the males under 12 years, 13·33 of those between 12 and 20, and 33·22 per cent. of those above 20 could read or write, while not a single girl or woman acknowledged this small amount of instruction. The Muhammadans were still more backward, as only 7·53 per cent. of the males under 12 and 11·11 per cent. of those over 20 were taught the merest rudiments of learning. In towns the children are better instructed, and in some cases learn both Arabic and Hindustáni. A middle-class school was opened in 1876, and had 44 pupils on the rolls at the end of the year.

Climate.—From November to February the dews are exceedingly heavy, and the nights very chilly, the terrestrial radiation thermometer often recording only 38° F. From February to May, dense fogs rise during the evenings, and the wind blows from the west. Towards the middle of May, storms of thunder and lightning are of frequent occurrence. The total rainfall registered in 1877 was 250·91 inches. The maximum temperature was 90° F., and the minimum 74° F. The town of Sandoway is considered by some to be the healthiest place in Arakan. The prevalent diseases of the District are agues and fevers.

Sandoway.—Chief town and headquarters of Sandoway District, Arakan Division, British Burma; situated in lat. 18° 27' 35" N., and long. 94° 24' 36" E., on the Sandoway river, about 15 miles from its mouth, but only 4½ miles from the sea in a direct line. The town lies in a basin about 12 miles long by 1 broad, well cultivated with rice, and surrounded by hills, the only outlets being those through which the river flows. The larger portion of the town, which is laid

out regularly, lies on the left bank of the river ; whilst on the right side is a long straggling suburb, buried in trees, and presenting the appearance of an independent village. It contains the court-houses, police station, market, jail, hospital, dispensary, and a circuit-house. Sandoway is a very ancient town, and is often mentioned in Arakanese history as the capital of a kingdom, or more probably a petty chieftainship. Its original name was Dwa-ra-wad-dí ; but according to a current legend it was called Than-dwai (by which appellation it is now known to the Burmese and Arakanese, Sandoway being an English corruption), from its having been miraculously fastened to the earth by iron chains.

After the capture of Arakan town in 1824, a force was sent southwards to attack Ramri (Ramree) and Sandoway. General MacBean reached Sandoway on the 30th of April, and occupied the town without resistance. After the cessation of the war, it remained for some years the headquarters of the troops garrisoning Arakan. The garrison has now been altogether withdrawn. When the British first took this town the number of inhabitants was found to be 4500. In 1877-78, the population was returned at 1617. Sandoway carries on a small coasting trade in rice, vegetables, etc., and an overland traffic in silk and other piece-goods with Prome and Bassein over the Arakan Mountains valued at £2000 per annum. Owing to the numerous creeks intersecting the coast, boats can get as far as Akyab without entering the open sea. In the neighbourhood of Sandoway are the three pagodas of An-daw, Nan-daw, and Tshan-daw, to which pilgrims resort three times a year, spending one day on each occasion at each shrine.

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Sandoway Myoma.—Township in Sandoway District, British Burma, sometimes called the central township. Bounded on the west by the Bay of Bengal. It comprises 14 revenue circles ; chief town, SANDOWAY, on the river of the same name. In 1875, the cultivated area was 14,612 acres ; products—rice, tobacco, sesamum, cotton, pepper, sugar-cane, cocoa-nuts, hemp, and miscellaneous garden stuff. Exports, agricultural produce ; imports—European cotton and woollen goods, silk goods from Prome and Bassein, and earth-oil and lacquered ware from the latter District. Good communication by boat. The population are mainly engaged in husbandry, fishing, and weaving.

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Sandoway Myoma.—Revenue circle in the township of the same name, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2809; gross revenue, £2588, inclusive of Sandoway town. Products—rice, cotton, tobacco, sugar, and indigo.

Sandru.—Pass in Bashahr State, Punjab, across the Himálayan range in Kunáwar. Lat. $31^{\circ} 24' N.$, long. $78^{\circ} 2' E.$ (Thornton). Said to be open during only two months of the year. Elevation above sea level, about 16,000 feet.

Sandúr (*Sundoor*, *Sandhur*?).—Native State within the British District of Bellary, Madras, lying between $14^{\circ} 58'$ and $15^{\circ} 12' N.$ lat., and between $76^{\circ} 28'$ and $76^{\circ} 43' E.$ long. Area, about 140 square miles, of which a large proportion is hill jungle. The State is bounded on the south by the Kúdligi *táluk*, and on all other sides by the Hospet *táluk* of Bellary District. The tract is elliptical in shape, stretching from north-west to south-east, and is almost entirely shut in by hills, which completely isolate it from the neighbouring country. The population of the State, not including the hill sanatorium of Rámandrug, is, according to the Madras Administration Report for 1877-78, 14,999 souls; the annual revenue from all sources somewhat exceeds £4500.

Physical Aspects.—One chain of hills on the western limits of the State is known as the Sandúr range (*q.v.*); and from the north, the Tim-mappa Hills run down to form its eastern boundary. These are crossed by three principal passes. On the east, the Yettinhalli or Bhimagundi *ghát* connects the State with Bellary; on the south-west, through the Oblagundi gorge, runs an excellent cart-road for through traffic. The Rámangundi valley between the two main converging ranges is the northern entrance, and has a good road to Hospet. The other principal elevations are the Rámandrug, Kumáraswámi and Kombatharavu plateaux. All these attain an elevation of about 3000 feet. The sides of the hills are in most places forest-clad, but indiscriminate felling and charcoal-burning have done much to keep down the more valuable timbers.

Several streams water the State. These, for the most part, find outlet in the Sandúr river or Núri Nálá through the Yettinhalli gorge, and feed the Daroji tank in Hospet. On the hills, tigers, leopards, pigs, porcupines, bears, *sámbhar* deer, and jungle sheep are found. The prevailing rock is a chloritic slate, often highly impregnated with oxide of iron, and crested in many places with mural ridges of ferruginous quartz rock, tinted with a variety of colours, from a steel-grey to a deep liver-brown. This rock often forms whole hills, always, however, overlying the slate. On the ranges generally, iron-ore is obtained. It is often of a rich quality, easily got at, and usually of a friable description. On Rámandrug, various coloured clays are procurable without difficulty. The prevailing soil in the valley is a rich heavy loam, interspersed here

and there with patches of black cotton-soil. In various parts, lime is obtained near the surface, chiefly in nodular form. The ascent to the Kumáraswámi pagoda passes over an extensive bed of lava conglomerate; and the same feature characterises part of the Rámandrug range.

History.—The founder of the Sandúr family was Malají Ráo Ghorpare, an officer in the army of the Bijápur King, whose son Birájí entered the service of Sivají the Great. The State had been previously held by a Bedar Poligár, but Birájí's son Sidají took Sandúr from the Bedars, and his conquest was confirmed to him and his heirs by Sambhají, the successor of Sivají. Sidají died in 1715, and was succeeded in Sandúr by his second son, Gopál Ráo, whose fate is involved in obscurity. All that is known is, that Sandúr was taken by Haidar Ali some time after his capture of Gooty (Guti) in 1779; that he began, and Tipú completed, the fort; and that Gopál Ráo's son, Siva Ráo, was killed in battle in 1785, in a vain attempt to recover his patrimony. In 1790, Siva Ráo's brother, Venkat Ráo, acting on behalf of his nephew Sidají, expelled Tipú's garrison, but did not attempt to occupy Sandúr till the fall of Seringapatam. The Peshwá then claimed the State as his own, and presented it to Yaswant Ráo Ghorpare, a distinguished officer of Sindhia's army, who belonged to the same family as the former holders. Yaswant Ráo did not enter into possession; and the widow of Sidají, who died in 1796, adopted Siva Ráo, a son of Khandi Ráo, the younger brother of Yaswant Ráo. The Peshwá made an unsuccessful attempt upon Sandúr in 1815; and

his request in 1817, the British Government, in conformity with the provisions of the treaty of Bassein, sent a force under Sir Thomas Munro to reduce it. In October of that year, the fort and State were surrendered. On Sir Thomas Munro's recommendation, Siva Ráo received as compensation a *jágír* of £1000. In 1818, however, after the downfall of the Peshwá's Government, Siva Ráo was restored to his State; and in 1826, he received a *sanad* from Government confirming the lands of Sandúr to him and his heirs free of any pecuniary demands. Siva Ráo was succeeded in 1840 by a nephew named Venkat Ráo, who died in 1861. His eldest son, Siva Shan Mukha Ráo, the present chief, being then a minor, did not receive the *sanad* till 1863. On the 24th January 1876, Lord Northbrook, then Governor-General, conferred on him the title of Rájá, as a hereditary distinction to be assumed by his successors on formal recognition of their succession. The Rájá has the entire management of the revenue and police of his State, and the duty of administering civil justice. In the administration of criminal justice, he is required to refer all cases calling for capital punishment for the orders of the Madras Government. The Collector of Bellary acts as Government Agent. The

chief holds a *sanad* conferring rights of adoption, granted by the British Government.

Population.—The population of Sandúr State in 1865 was 12,962. At the Census of 1871 it was returned as 14,994; and the Madras Administration Report for 1877-78 gives the number as 14,999. Of these, 12,800, or nearly 86 per cent., are Hindus; and 2153, or 14 per cent., Muhammadans. Of a male working adult population of 4849, nearly 70 per cent. (3231) are cultivators and labourers. In caste and race, the people are identical with those of the surrounding District of Bellary. On the plateaux, there is a hill tribe of hunters, called Bedars, divided into two clans. They are a healthy and industrious people; and although possessing peculiar customs, they are probably Dravidian-Hindus, and in no way connected with the aboriginal tribes, such as Malayális, etc.

Places of Interest.—The two places of most interest in the State are the important sanatorium of RAMANMALAI, situated 3150 feet above the sea, and used chiefly as a convalescent depôt for troops; and the temple of Kumáraswámi, of which Newbold gives the following description:—‘It is situated near the basin of a ravine, not far from the summit of the south-west part of the range of hills that enclose the valley; and after an ascent of 4 miles. The temple is neither large nor magnificent, but has an air of antiquity, of which its whitewashed exterior and gilded cupola cannot entirely divest it. The *gopuram* faces the east; on the left of the entrance is the shrine of the goddess Párvati, consort of Siva; to the west is the image of her son Kumáraswámi, the presiding genius of the place; and to the right stands the shrine of the destroyer Siva. In front is a square pool called “Aguste Tirtha.” In front of the *gopuram* is a small octangular column of hewn stone, at the foot of which lie three trunkless stone heads. The largest is that of the giant Tarakasam, slain by Kumáraswámi. The great festival occurs triennially, and at this the number of pilgrims has latterly amounted to 25,000 or 30,000; the temple revenue averages from 15,000 to 20,000 rupees (say £1500 to £2000) annually. A *Shasanam* in old Kanarese is still preserved, which grants the endowment of the temple. It was given in S. 615 (713 A.D.) by a king of the Marala dynasty, named Bijala Náyak.’ The climate of Kumáraswámi is described as very agreeable, although, owing to its easterly position, it is not so cool as that of Rámandrug.

Revenue.—The revenue of the State is about £4500, of which £2400 is derived from land. The land revenue includes grants of land to dependants and service lands; and in all, lands to the annual value of £1250 are alienated. It has been the policy of the present Rájá to increase the security of the land tenures, and render them permanent. The *rayats* may cut wood for all agricultural pur-

poses free of payment; nor are they liable to be charged for firewood which they themselves carry home. The poorer classes are permitted to cut firewood and grass in the jungles, and to sell it in the *bázár* free of tax.

Sandúr (*Sundoor, Sandhur?*).—Hills in Bellary District, Madras. A range of hills about 15 miles long, running from south-east to north-west, ending abruptly near Hospet. This range forms the greater part of the western boundary of the native State of SANDUR, dividing it from the Hospet *táluk*. Rámandrug, 3150 feet above the sea, is the principal hill, and was selected as far back as 1846 for the sanatorium of RAMANAMALAI. The range consists of gneiss much weathered. The upper part of Rámandrug is clay ironstone, and the slopes consist of a variety of schistose rocks containing manganese and antimony. Tigers are found in these hills, and much useful wood comes from them.

Sandwíp (*SundEEP*).—Island in the Bay of Bengal; situated off the coast of Chittagong and Noákhálí, and part of the latter District, though under the civil jurisdiction of the Judge of Chittagong. Lat. $22^{\circ} 24'$ to $22^{\circ} 37' N.$; long. $91^{\circ} 22'$ to $91^{\circ} 35' E.$ The largest of many *chars* formed by the MEGHNA as it enters the sea. For long, a process of diluvion went on in the south of Sandwíp, but the soil re-formed and reappeared in 1865 as the Kálí *char*, many miles long, lying parallel with the south face of the island, at a distance of about 2 or 3 miles. This *char* already acts as a bar to protect Sandwíp from further diluvion, and will eventually, in all probability, become attached to it by the silting up of the intermediate channel. Sandwíp early attracted the notice of travellers. Cæsar Frederick, the Venetian traveller, in 1565 described the inhabitants of Sandwíp as 'Moors;' and stated that the island was one of the most fertile places in the country, densely populated, and well cultivated. He mentions the extraordinary cheapness of provisions here; and adds that 200 ships were laden yearly with salt, and that such was the abundance of materials for shipbuilding in this country, that the Sultan of Constantinople found it cheaper to have his vessels built here than at Alexandria. Purchas (*circa* 1620) states that most of the inhabitants near the shore were Muhammadans; and there are several mosques on Sandwíp Island two hundred years old. Sir Thomas Herbert (*circa* 1625) bears testimony to the fertility of the island, which he describes as one of the fairest and most fruitful spots in all India. The cocoa-nut palm flourishes in Sandwíp, and the nuts are exported to Chittagong and Akyab. Sugar-cane is also cultivated to a great extent.

The island of Sandwíp figured conspicuously in the contests of the 17th century between the Arakanese, Muhammadans, and Portuguese (see CHITTAGONG DISTRICT), and during that period numerous forts were erected. In one of these, the Muhammadan troops took refuge in

March 1609, when the Portuguese landed on the island. But the fort was besieged and captured, and the defenders put to the sword. In 1616, Sandwip was taken from the Portuguese by the Arakanese. In 1665, Sháístá Khán, the Muhammadan Nawáb of Bengal, determined to reconquer the island. An interesting account of his expedition, by the French traveller Bernier, was translated in the *Calcutta Review* for 1871, and is quoted in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. vi. pp. 243-246.

Until 1822, the island formed part of Chittagong, but in that year it was made over to the newly formed District of Noákháíl. It had, from the time when it came under British administration (1760), formed a constant source of disquiet. It afforded an asylum for the refuse of the river Districts from Dacca southwards, and had a mixed population of Hindus, Muhammadans, and Maghs, who formed on the island agricultural colonies, fishing settlements, piratical villages, and robber communities. The subordinate tenants kept up a bitter quarrel with the landholder-in-chief, and every class seemed to have a grudge against the rest, and some complaint to make to Government. But the firm administration of the British officials gradually produced its effect. A Commissioner was appointed to measure and partition the island. His appearance, however, was at first only the signal for new disorders. On the one hand, he complained of 'obstructions and difficulties' thrown in the way of executing his duty; on the other hand, the *tálukdárs* forwarded a bitter petition and lament. An enterprising native gentleman proposed, in May 1785, to relieve the officials of further difficulty by taking Sandwip in farm. But the Government was resolved to have the work thoroughly done, and rejected his offer. Accordingly, the troublesome island was placed under the direct management of the Collector, who was ordered to conduct a land settlement. The administration of justice in Sandwip was formerly under the authority of an officer called a *faujdar*, resident in the island. But from a report (dated September 1779) by Mr. Duncan, specially deputed to Sandwip, it appears that when Government ceased to maintain a fortress on the island, the *faujdar* was no longer retained, and justice was administered by an inferior officer with the title of *dárogá*. This official had not, however, uncontrolled jurisdiction. From the year 1760, if not from an earlier date, he was entirely under the authority of the *naib ahad-dár*. It was the duty of the *dárogá* and his assistants to prepare cases for hearing; and on fixed days in each week the *naib ahad-dár* would sit in his court of justice, attended by the *dárogás*, *kánúgos*, and *zamindárs*, to dispose of all cases brought before him. 'This court,' writes Mr. Duncan, 'took cognizance of all matters, civil and criminal—its jurisdiction being only restrained as

to matters of revenue, the cognizance of which rested with the *ahad-dār* in his separate capacity. In matters of debt, the court retained the fourth part of the sum in litigation, and enacted discretionary fines for theft, gang-robbery (*dākkāitī*), fornication, assaults, and the like.'

Among the miscellaneous inquiries conducted by Mr. Duncan in 1779, was one relating to complaints of slaves, or persons reported to be slaves, against their masters. 'This unfortunate race of mankind,' says Mr. Duncan, 'bears in Sandwip a larger proportion to the other inhabitants than perhaps in any other District in the Province; there is hardly a householder, however indigent, who has not at least one slave, and the majority have many in their families. Their number also very soon increases by marriage, in which they are encouraged by their masters, the custom of the country being such that a free woman, on marrying a male slave, reduces herself and her family to be the perpetual slaves of her husband's master, who continues ever after to retain them in the same bondage.' One man alone was said to possess more than 1500 slaves. The principal cause assigned by Mr. Duncan for the great extent to which slavery prevailed in Sandwip, was 'the extreme cheapness and abundance of grain in the island, so that as often as there is any scarcity in Dacca District, it attracts people to Sandwip, where it has been common for many of them to sell themselves and their posterity for maintenance.' Although Mr. Duncan in 1779 set only 15 slaves and their families at liberty, yet none of his proceedings created more general apprehension than his taking cognizance of this particular grievance, because all the principal people were immediately interested.

From its low-lying position, Sandwip is peculiarly exposed to inundation from storm waves, and suffered severely in loss of life and property by the cyclones of 1864 and 1876. The calamity of the latter year was the severest on record. The following account of the inundation is quoted from a report by Mr. Pellew, the Magistrate of Noákháli:—'The people in the villages on the south-western coast stated that the inundation commenced with a wave at least 6 feet high, which burst over the land from the south-east. Very shortly afterwards, another wave, 6 feet higher, came from the south-west. These waves came suddenly, just like the bore, mounting up and curling over. The second wave is described as lifting the roofs of the houses, and whirling the contents—human beings, furniture, etc.—violently outside. The mat walls, with their wooden posts, were swept away, the latter being either broken off short or wrested out of the ground. All this was done suddenly; people described it as occurring in one second of time. Behind each wave the water did not fall again, but remained, so that after the second wave there was 12 feet of water over the land.

'In the centre of the island the water came up less suddenly. The Government Pleader at Harishpur was taking refuge from the storm in his new office. Suddenly an alarm was raised that the water was coming. He got on the wooden dais, but the water immediately covered this. He then went up to his neck in water, along a raised path, to the bank of his tank, which is about 12 feet high. He told me that the rising of the water did not take longer than two minutes from first to last, and that he was only just in time. The bank of the tank was not more than 10 yards from his office.'

In many villages whole families were swept away, and in some of the *chars* the entire population was destroyed. 'In the village of Neyámasti,' writes Mr. Pellew, 'one man was the sole survivor of thirteen; four men were the survivors of a household of twenty-five. The women have perished in immense numbers. Most of the men who remain are wifeless. In Kangáli Char, the Sub-Inspector of Police found nothing but two wild buffaloes alive, and the corpses of men, cows, and buffaloes. In Char Maulavi, out of 177 people, 137 died.'

For the first few days after this cyclone of 1876, there were several attempts at plundering, and demoralization prevailed among the low Muhammadan population. Men, in gangs and singly, armed with cudgels, bills, and hatchets, were, the Magistrate reported, wandering about the inundated tracts, and breaking open and looting all they could lay their hands upon, whether under the care of owners or not. This lawlessness was, however, rapidly suppressed; and the people soon returned to the sites of their former houses, and busied themselves in drying their grain and in saving what they could of their property. Throughout the devastated tracts, 'the demeanour of those who really bore the brunt of the storm was,' Sir Richard Temple states, 'marked by that enduring fortitude under suffering which distinguishes the native character.'

The number of deaths was officially estimated at 40,000, out of a total population of 87,016. Cholera set in soon after the cyclone had passed over. Although a large medical staff was immediately despatched to the District, the epidemic continued to rage to such an extent, that when Mr. Pellew visited the Sandwip islands, the mortality from the plague threatened in some places to exceed that from the storm itself. The returns for thirty-three police-beats in South Sandwip, with a population of 10,855 souls, gave the deaths by drowning as 1063, whereas those from cholera in the same tract had by December 1876 amounted to 764. The pollution of the tanks and water-courses, both by the salt-water inundation and by the corpses of men and the carcases of cattle, added to the other evils resulting from the cyclone; while the stench from the dead tainting the air throughout the inun-

dated tract aggravated the plague of cholera. Nearly all the scavenger animals—jackals, dogs, and even vultures—perished by the storm and the wave; and for weeks after the inundation the land was covered with the dead bodies of men and cattle, preserved by the salt-water from rapid decomposition.

Sángala.—Ruins in Jhang District, Punjab; standing on a small rocky hill, upon the border of Gujránwála District; now known as Sánqlawála Tiba, and identified by General Cunningham with the Sákala of the Bráhmans, the Ságala of Buddhism, and the Sàngala of Alexander's historians. The hill rises to a height of 215 feet above the surrounding plain on its north side, and slopes southward till it ends in an abrupt bank only 32 feet in height, crowned in early times by a brick wall, traces of which still exist. The whole intervening area is strewn with large antique bricks, great quantities of which have been removed during the last fifteen years. An extensive swamp covers the approach on the south and east, the least defensible quarters, with a general depth of 3 feet in the rains, but dry during the summer. This must have been a large lake in the days of Alexander, which has since silted up by washings from the hill above. On the north-east side of the hill, General Cunningham found the remains of two considerable buildings, with bricks of enormous size. Close by, stands an old well, lately cleared out by wandering tribes. On the north-west side, about 1000 feet distant, rises a low ridge of rock, known as Munda-ka-pura, 30 feet in height, also covered by brick remains. The earliest notice of the locality occurs in the *Mahábhárata*, where Sákala figures as the capital of the Mádras, situated upon the Apága rivulet, west of the Irávati or Rávi, and approached from the east by pleasant paths through the Pílu forest. The neighbourhood bears the name of Mádr-des to the present day. In Buddhist legends, the city reappears as Ságala, whither seven kings made their way to carry off Prabhávatí, the wife of King Kusa. That monarch, however, met them outside the gates, mounted upon an elephant, and shouted with so loud a voice that his words were heard over the whole world, and the seven kings fled away in terror. Arrian, Curtius, and Diodorus all notice Sàngala, 'a great city, defended not only by a wall, but by a swamp,' which was deep enough to drown several of the inhabitants who attempted to swim across. Alexander seems to have turned out of his direct line of march to punish the Kathœans of Sàngala, who had withheld their allegiance. He stormed the outpost of Munda-ka-pura, crowded with fugitives from other cities, and then, breaching the walls by means of a mine, captured the town by assault. Hiouen Thsang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, who visited Sákala in 630 A.D., found the fortifications in ruins, but traced their foundations for a circuit of $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles. In the midst of the

remains, a small portion of the ancient city, 1 mile in circuit, was still inhabited, and contained a Buddhist monastery and two *stupas*, one of them founded by the famous Emperor Asoka. The accurate details of the Chinese traveller have been principally instrumental in settling the identity of Sānglawāla Tiba with the historical site.

Sangamner.—Chief town of the Sangamner Subdivision of Ahmednagar District, Bombay; situated 49 miles north-west of Ahmednagar city, in lat. $19^{\circ} 34' 30''$ N., and long. $74^{\circ} 16' 10''$ E. Pop. (1872), 9978. Sangamner is a municipality, with an annual revenue of £312. Sub-judge's court, post office, and dispensary.

Sangarh.—Northern *tahsil* of Derá Gházi Khán District, Punjab; consisting of a narrow strip of land between the Suláimán Mountains and the Indus. Area, 668 square miles; pop. (1868), 39,246; persons per square mile, 58; number of villages, 76; area under cultivation, 107,900 acres.

Sángarhi.—Town in Bhandára District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. $20^{\circ} 58'$ N., long. 80° E., 24 miles south-east of Bhandára town, and 3 miles south of the Seoní Lake (*vide* SEONIBAND). Pop. (1866), 4367. Local industries—the manufacture of cotton cloth, which is largely exported, and silk-spinning. Sántarhi derives its name from the ruined Afghán fort which commands it. The town stands on a gravelly soil, but is unhealthy, owing to the brackishness of the water supply from most of the wells. Police post, and flourishing Government school.

Sanghi.—Agricultural village in Rohtak District, Punjab. Lat. $29^{\circ} 1'$ N., long. $76^{\circ} 37'$ E.; pop. (1868), 5117, consisting of 4541 Hindus, 570 Muhammadans, and 6 Sikhs.

Sángli.—Native State in the Political Agency of the Southern Marhattá Country, Bombay; consisting of six separate divisions—a group of villages near the valley of the Kistna; a second group between the Kolhápúr territory on the west and Jámkhándi State; a third group in Sholápúr District, near the junction of the Mán and Bhíma rivers; a fourth in Dhárwár District; a fifth just north of the town of Belgáum; and the last to the south of the river Malprabha and to the north-east of Kittúr in Belgáum. The State contains a total area of 896 square miles, and a population (1872) of 223,663 persons. The portion watered by the Kistna is flat, and the soil particularly rich. The remaining divisions of the State are plains surrounded by undulating lands, and occasionally intersected by ridges of hills. The prevailing soil is black. Irrigation is carried on from rivers, wells, and tanks. The climate is the same as that of the Deccan generally, the air being very dry, especially when east winds prevail. The most common diseases are cholera, small-pox, and fever. The chief products of the State are millet, rice, wheat, gram, and cotton; and the principal manufactures are coarse

cotton cloth, and native articles of apparel. The chief of Săngli is a member of the Patwardhan family, whose founder Haribhat, a Konkan Bráhmaṇ, rose to military command under the first Peshwá, and received grants of land on condition of military service. In 1772, Miraj descended to Chintáman Ráo, grandson of Govind Ráo Hari, the original grantee. Chintáman Ráo being a child of six years, the State was managed during his minority by his uncle Gangádhār Ráo. When the minor came of age, he quarrelled with his uncle, who attempted to keep him out of his rights. Eventually the estate was divided between them, the uncle retaining Miraj, and Chintáman Ráo taking Săngli. The revenue of Săngli was £63,518, and of Miraj, £47,980; the estates being respectively subject to a service of 1920 and 1219 horse. Chintáman Ráo, the father of the present chief of Săngli, became a feudatory of the British Government on the downfall of the Peshwá in 1818-19. In 1846, the East India Company presented him with a sword in testimony of their respect for his high character, and in acknowledgment of his fidelity and attachment to the British Government. Chintáman Ráo died in 1851. The chief of Săngli does not now pay any contribution on account of military service, having given up lands of the annual value of £13,500 in lieu thereof. The family hold a title authorizing adoption. The present chief is Dhundi Ráo Chintáman, a Hindu of the Bráhmaṇ caste. He ranks as a 'first-class' Sardár in the Southern Marhattá Country, and has power to try for capital offences, without the express permission of the Political Agent. This power, however, applies to his own subjects only. He enjoys an estimated net revenue of £77,295, and maintains a military force of 822 men. There are in the State 42 schools, with a total of 1762 pupils. In consequence of abuses in administration, a British officer has recently been appointed to exercise direct control.

Săngli.—Chief town of Săngli State, Bombay; situated in lat. 16° 51' 35" N., and long. 74° 36' 20" E., on the river Kistna, a little north of the confluence of the Wárna, and north-east of Kolhápúr. Pop. (1872), 12,961.

Sángola.—Chief town of the Săngola Subdivision of Sholápúr District, Bombay; situated 19 miles south-west of Pandharpur, in lat. 17° 26' 30" N., and long. 75° 14' 15" E. Pop. (1872), 5111. Săngola is a municipality, with an annual revenue of £115. Sub-judge's court and post office.

Sangrámpur.—Town in Champáran District, Bengal; situated in lat. 26° 28' 38" N., and long. 84° 44' E., on the river Gandak. Pop. (1872), 6181.

Sangri.—One of the Punjab Hill States. Area, 16 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 700. It is situated south of the river Sutlej (Satlaj), and formerly belonged to the Rájás of Kullú, whose main

possessions lay north of that river. Sangri was seized by the Gúrkhas, but they were expelled by the British in 1815, and the estate was restored to the Rájá of Kullu. The Kullu territories north of the Sutlej were, however, conquered by the Sikhs, and the Rájá took refuge in Sangri, where he died childless in 1841. On the country falling under British power after the first Sikh war, his nephew was recognised, in 1847, as chief of Sangri. The present (1876) Miáh of Sangri is Hira Sinh, a Rájput. He enjoys a supposed gross revenue of £100. The chief products of the State are opium and grain.

Sangu.—Subdivision of the Chittagong Hill Tracts, Bengal, formed in March 1867. It comprises the tract of country between the rivers Sangu and Mátámuri. Owing to the manner in which the Census of 1872 was taken in this backward District, no separate details of population, etc. are available.

Sangu.—River of Chittagong, Bengal; rises in the range of hills dividing Arakan from the Chittagong Hill Tracts, near the hill of Kudáng. After a circuitous course of about 125 miles, generally northerly, over a rocky bed, it reaches Bandárban, from which town it takes a tortuous westerly direction through Chittagong District, and finally empties itself into the Bay of Bengal, in lat. $22^{\circ} 6' N.$, and long. $91^{\circ} 53' E.$, about 10 miles south of the Karnaphul. The Sangu is tidal as far as Bandárban; its bed here is sandy. Though shallow in ordinary times, during the rains this river becomes deep, dangerous, and rapid. In its upper reaches, the Sangu is called by the hillmen the Rigray Khyoung; midway, before entering the plains, it is known as the Sabák Khyoung. It is navigable by large cargo boats for a distance of 30 miles throughout the year. The principal tributary is the Dolu.

Sanivarsante.—*Kásbá* or administrative headquarters of Yelusa-virashime *tíluk*, in the territory of Coorg. The name of the village is derived from a weekly fair held on Saturday.

Sanján.—Small village in Tháná (Tanna) District, Bombay; believed to have been formerly a large town, and the place where the Pársis first landed in India. Known to the Portuguese, and long after their time, as 'St. John.'

Sanjeli.—One of the petty States of Rewa Kántha, Bombay. Area, $33\frac{1}{2}$ square miles; estimated revenue in 1875, £510. No tribute is paid. The chief is named Thákur Partáb Sinhji.

Sankaridrug (*Sanka-giri Durgam*).—Village in Salem District, Madras. Lat. $11^{\circ} 28' 52'' N.$, long. $77^{\circ} 55' 40'' E.$; pop. (1871), 1711, dwelling in 374 houses. Sub-magistrate's court, railway station, and telegraph office. The village is situated at the foot of the Durgam or Drug, a square mass of gneiss rising 1000 feet above the plain, completely terraced with fortifications, while half-way up, like a pearl set

in emeralds, a white mosque nestles amongst the rich foliage which still covers part of the hill. On the summit is a small plateau, with a good supply of water stored in the rock. Viewed from below, the hill is a source of interest to the geologist, from the very fine specimens of granite veins piercing the gneiss, which have been exposed in the course of ages.

The Drug was a place of great strength, and was not attempted by Colonel Wood in 1768, when he captured all the surrounding forts. The fortifications on the summit show traces of European engineering.

Sankarkati.—Village in the Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal. Noted for its large and numerously attended fair held during the *Durgá-pújá*, *Dol*, and *Rath Jittrá* festivals. Bi-weekly market.

Sankárnáinárkoil.—Town in Tinneveli District, Madras; situated in lat. $9^{\circ} 10' 10''$ N., and long. $77^{\circ} 34' 35''$ E., on the road from Madura to Travancore. Pop. (1871), 11,632, dwelling in 2793 houses. A large, well-built town, with fine temple and tanks; and the headquarters of a *táluk* of the same name.

Sankarpur.—Town in Chánda District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. $20^{\circ} 38'$ N., and long. $79^{\circ} 34'$ E., 16 miles north-north-east of Chímár. Contains a modern fort of earth and brick, and has Government schools for boys and girls. Under the Marhattás, a cannon foundry was worked at Sankarpur, and some half-finished guns yet remain.

Sankeswar.—Town in Belgáum District, Bombay; situated in lat. $16^{\circ} 15'$ N., and long. $74^{\circ} 31' 30''$ E., 27 miles north by west of Belgáum town. Pop. (1872), 8905. Post office.

Sankh.—River of Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal; rises in the west of Lohárdagá District, and after a tortuous course of 120 miles, first south-westerly and then south-easterly, joins the South Koel in Gangpur State. The united stream, under the name of the Bráhmañí, enters the sea in the north of Orissa. The confluence of the South Koel and the Sankh is the most picturesque spot in Gangpur. Local tradition asserts it to be the scene of the amour of the Sage Parásuram with the fisherman's daughter Matsya Gandhá, the offspring of which was Vyása, the reputed compiler of the *Veda* and the *Mahábhárata*.

Sankhatra.—Municipal town in Siálkot (Sealkote) District, Punjab. Lat. $32^{\circ} 13'$ N., long. $74^{\circ} 58'$ E.; pop. (1876-77), 2391; municipal revenue (1876-77), £75; incidence of taxation, $7\frac{1}{2}$ d. per head.

Sákhund.—Spring in Bhágálpur District, Bengal; so called from the monster *sankh* or shell Panchajanya, mentioned in the *Mahábhárata*, the sound of which filled the breasts of the enemy with dismay. This shell is said to have rested beneath the waters of the spring, and its impression on the bank—three feet in length by a foot and a half wide—is still shown.

Sankisa.—Village and ruins in Etah District, North-Western Pro-

vinces; identified by General Cunningham with the great city of the same name, which formed the capital of a considerable kingdom in the 5th century B.C. Distant from Etah town 43 miles south-east. Visited by Fa-Hian, about 415 A.D., and by Hiouen Tshang in 636 A.D., when it was a celebrated place of Buddhist pilgrimage, being the spot where Buddha descended again upon earth by three staircases of gold, silver, and crystal, after a residence of three months in the Triyastrinshas' heaven, preaching the law to his mother, Máya. King Asoka afterwards erected a pillar to commemorate the event, but no remains of it can now with certainty be discovered. The existing village is perched upon a mound of ruins, known as the *kila* or fort, 41 feet in height, with a superficial extent of 1500 feet by 1000. A quarter of a mile southward is another mound, composed of solid brick-work, and surmounted by a temple to Bisári Devi. North of the temple mound, at a distance of 400 feet, lies the capital of an ancient pillar, bearing an erect figure of an elephant, wanting the trunk and tail. The capital has the well-known bell-shape, reeded perpendicularly with a honeysuckle abacus, as in the pillar at Allahábád; and it evidently belongs to the same period, the 3d century B.C. Hence General Cunningham considers it identical with Asoka's monument, mentioned by the Chinese Pilgrims, although the latter was said to be crowned by the figure of a lion—a discrepancy which the learned archæologist explains away by supposing that the trunk was already broken off in the 5th century A.D., and that the animal could no longer be distinguished at a height of 50 feet above the ground. South of the temple of Bisári Devi, again, at a distance of 200 feet, occurs a third small mound of ruins, apparently the remains of a *stupa*; while 600 feet due east is a fourth mound, 600 feet by 500, known as Nivi-kakot, which seems to contain the remains of some large enclosed building like a Buddhist monastery. The fort and the various mounds which surround the temple form a mass of ruins 3000 feet in length by 2000 in breadth, or nearly 2 miles in circuit; but this space appears only to enclose the citadel and the religious edifices which gathered round the three holy staircases by which Buddha descended upon the earth. The city itself, which surrounded the central holy enclosure, was girt by an earthen rampart upwards of $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles in circumference, and still distinctly traceable in the shape of an irregular dodecagon. Three openings which occur in the rampart are traditionally pointed out as the gates of the ancient city. South-east of the Sankisa ruins lies the tank of the Nága, known as Karewar, and identified with a 'dragon tank' described by Fa-Hian. The city was probably destroyed during the wars between Prithwi Ráj of Delhi and Jái Chand of Kanauj. Other interesting ruins occur in the neighbouring village of SARAI-AGHAT, $\frac{3}{4}$ mile distant north-west.

Sankos (or *Suvarnakos*; so called from its golden sands).—River of North-Eastern Bengal, flowing through that low tract of country between the Himálayas and the Brahmaputra, where no river preserves its identity amid the frequent fluvial changes that take place year by year. It can only be affirmed that the name is given, in different parts of its course, to a river that flows southward from the Bhután Hills, and ultimately joins the Brahmaputra, in lat. $25^{\circ} 52' N.$, and long. $89^{\circ} 52' E.$ The main channel of this river forms the boundary between the Eastern and Western Dwárs, thus separating Bengal from Assam. Its chief tributaries are the Káljání and Ráidhak on the right bank, and the Gadádhar on the left. The name of the GADADHAR is commonly applied to the united stream.

Sann.—Town in the Mánjhand *táluk* of Sehván Deputy Collectorate, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind; situated in lat. $26^{\circ} N.$, and long. $68^{\circ} 8' E.$, close to the western bank of the Indus, at the mouth of a torrent that issues from the Laki Hills; on the main road from Kotri to Sehván, being 12 miles north of Mánjhand, and 11 south of Amri. To the south-west of Sann is the vast but ruined fort of Rání-ka-kot, said to have been constructed by two of the Tálpur Mírs early in the present century, at a cost of 12 *lákhs* of rupees (say £120,000). Originally the river flowed near the walls, but when its course changed, the fort was abandoned. Sann is the headquarters of a *tappadár*; it also contains a post office, school, *dharmshála*, and a small police post. Pop. (1872), 1798, viz. 1362 Muhammadans and 436 Hindus.

Sanosra.—One of the petty States of North Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 3 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue in 1876, £403, of which £18 is paid as tribute to the British Government, and £5 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Sansar Dhára.—Grotto and place of pilgrimage in Dehra Dún District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. $30^{\circ} 21' N.$, long. $78^{\circ} 6' E.$ A waterfall gushes from a cleft in the rock, with a grotto behind it, in which stalactites are formed. The Hindus consider it sacred to Mahádeva, and visit it in considerable numbers. Distant from Mussooree (Masúri) about 12 miles.

Santál Parganá, The.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between $23^{\circ} 48'$ and $25^{\circ} 19' N.$ lat., and between $86^{\circ} 30'$ and $87^{\circ} 58' E.$ long. Area, 5488 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1872, 1,259,287 souls. The Santál Parganá form the southern portion of the Bhágálpur Division. They are bounded on the north by the Districts of Bhágálpur and Purniah; on the east by Maldah, Murshidábád, and Bírbehúm; on the south by Bardwán and Mánbehúm; and on the west by Hazáribagh and Bhágálpur. The administrative headquarters are at NAYA DUMKA.

Physical Aspects.—Three distinct types of country are represented

in the Santál Parganás. In the east of the District a belt of hills stretches for about a hundred miles from the Ganges to the Naubil river. West of this is a rolling tract of long ridges with intervening depressions, covering an area of about 2500 square miles. The third type is exemplified by a narrow, almost continuous, strip of flat alluvial land about 170 miles in length, lying for the most part along the loop-line of the East Indian Railway. The total area of this alluvial tract is about 650 square miles. The undulating upland tract, which includes the entire Sub-District of DEOGHAR, with Pabbiá and the southern portion of Goddá, is in many parts overgrown with jungle; and the gneiss, which forms the geological basis of the District generally, is here overlaid by the carboniferous shales and sandstones that form the Deoghar coal-field. The RAJMAHAL HILLS, which abruptly rise from the valley of the Ganges, were, until very recently, regarded as a continuation of the Vindhya range of Central India. It has been found, however, that not only are they physically quite detached from the Vindhya hill system, but geologically there is nothing in common between the two. The Rájmahál Hills occupy an area of 1366 square miles; they nowhere rise higher than 2000 feet above the sea, their average elevation being considerably less. The principal peaks are Morí and Sendgarsa, each about 2000 feet above the sea. The other hill ranges of the District are the Mahuasarhi, Rámgarh, Belpáta, Kumrábád, Lakshanpur, Salchála, and Sankara. Singanmát, a peak in the last-named range, is well known as a landmark for all the country round. Most of these hills are covered almost to their summits with dense jungle, and are difficult of access. There are, however, numerous passes through the successive ranges, along which good roads might without difficulty be made. The Ganges forms the northern and a large part of the eastern boundary of the Santál Parganás, and all the rivers of the District eventually flow either into it or into the Bhágirathi. The chief of these rivers are the Gumáni, the Moral, the Bánsloi, the Bráhmań, the Mor or Morákhí with its tributary the Naubil, the Ajai, and the Barákhá. None of them is navigable throughout the year. Picturesque waterfalls are formed near the villages of Kuskirá, Sinhpur, and Mahárájpur, and there are several mineral springs in the District. Game, large and small, is common throughout the Santál Parganás.

History.—The administrative history of the Santál Parganás is the history of the gradual withdrawal of the territory now comprised in the District from the operation of the general regulations, that withdrawal being throughout dictated by a regard for the peculiar national character of the two races of Paháriás and Santáls. The policy was in the first instance set on foot by Mr. Augustus Cleveland, Collector of Bhágalpur, in the rules which he proposed for the management of the

Paháriás between 1780 and 1784. These rules, which are referred to in the article on BHAGALPUR DISTRICT, were incorporated in Regulation I. of 1796, so that Cleveland has a fair claim to be considered the author of the non-regulation system. It followed, however, from confirming the Paháriás in possession of the hills, that disputes arose between them and the Hindu *zamindárs* of the plains as to the right of grazing cattle and cutting timber along the lower slopes. Accordingly, in 1832, two Government officials were deputed to demarcate with solid masonry pillars the present area of the Dáman-i-koh or 'skirts of the hills.' The permission to Santáls to settle in the valleys and on the lower slopes of the Dáman stimulated Santál immigration to an enormous extent; and it might be supposed that the natural consequence of that immigration would have been the admission of the Santáls to the exceptional privileges which the Paháriás already enjoyed. But this measure, although more than once proposed, was not approved by Government; and the next phase in the history of the District is the Santál rebellion of 1855-56. The story of that rebellion, and the causes which led to it, would occupy more space than can here be given, but the reader will find an exhaustive account of it in my *Annals of Rural Bengal*, and a shorter sketch under article INDIA (*ante*, Vol. IV.). The Santáls, starting with the desire to revenge themselves on the Hindu money-lenders who had taken advantage of their simplicity and improvidence, found themselves arrayed in arms against the British Government. The insurrection was not repressed without bloodshed, but it led to the establishment of a form of administration congenial to the Santál immigrants; and a land settlement has recently been carried out on conditions favourable to the occupants of the soil.

Population.—No estimate of the population of the entire District exists previous to the Census of 1872. That enumeration disclosed a total of 1,259,287 persons, inhabiting 9872 villages and 230,504 houses; average density of the population, 229 persons per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 1·8; houses per square mile, 42; persons per village, 128; persons per house, 5·4. The most thickly peopled portion of the District is the *zamindári* tract, where the average density is 241 persons to the square mile, varying from 160 to 392. Taking the Dáman-i-koh as a whole, there is a general average of 193 persons to the square mile, the greatest density recorded being 212 in that portion of the Dáman attached to Goddá, and the least being 161 in the Dáman of Nayá Dumká. Classified according to sex, the number of males is 629,716, and of females, 629,571, the proportion of males being thus exactly 50 per cent. of the whole population. Classified according to age, there are, under 12 years—males, 269,751, and females, 242,836; total children, 512,587, or 40·7 per cent. of the population: above 12 years old—males, 359,965,

and females, 386,735; total adults, 746,700. The excess of male over female children is explained by the fact that here, as elsewhere in India, the natives consider that a girl reaches womanhood at an earlier age than a boy arrives at manhood, and many girls are consequently returned as women. The abnormally large proportion of children—40·7 per cent. of the District population—is probably due to the fact that the aboriginal races are unusually prolific. The ethnical division of the population gives the following results:—Non-Asiatics, 120 (of whom 106 were British); mixed races (Eurasians), 92; and Asiatics, 1,259,075. Of the natives of India, 390,612 are returned as Hindus, besides 7076 persons of Hindu origin not recognising caste; and 79,786 as Muhammadans. Of the Hindus, 76,848 belong to the superior castes (Bráhmans, Rájputs, and Ghátwáls). The Goálás, cowherds and milkmen (of whom there are 74,529), form by far the most numerous caste in the District; the artisan castes number altogether 83,722 persons, of whom 27,954 are Telís (oilmen). The total number of persons belonging to aboriginal tribes is 557,277, of whom the great majority (455,513) consist of Santáls. The Paháriás number 68,336. The other principal aboriginal tribes represented in the District are Naiyás (9179), Kols (8894), and Mals (8820). The total number of Santáls throughout the whole of the Bengal Provinces is returned in the Census Report of 1872 at 923,532, of whom just one-half are found in the District of the Santál Parganá. Mánbhúm comes next with 132,445; Midnapur has 96,921; the Native States of Orissa, 76,548; Singbhúm, 51,132; Hazáribágh, 35,306. The Santáls form 3 per cent., or more than one-third of the total number of the aboriginal races under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, and they are certainly the best known to Europeans. The history of this interesting tribe, so far as it is ascertained, together with a description of their physical appearance, habits, and mode of life, will be found in Colonel Dalton's *Descriptive Ethnology of Bengal*. The same work also contains an account of the Paháriás, their customs, language, etc. Divided according to religion, the population of the Santál Parganá is made up in almost equal proportions of Hindus, who number 650,210, or 51·6 per cent., and hill people professing aboriginal faiths, who form 42 per cent. The remainder consists of Muhammadans (79,786, or 6·4 per cent.), and a very small sprinkling (392, or 0·03 per cent.) of Christians. Nearly all the converts to Christianity are obtained from the aboriginal races, who are engaged in agriculture; little effect has been produced upon the pure Hindus, or on the more civilised inhabitants of the towns. Two missions are at work in the District, one affiliated to the Church Missionary Society, with stations at Páljhári, Hirámpur, and Goddá; and the Santál Home Mission, which has its headquarters at Benagária. The population is almost altogether rural; only 6 towns contain from

2000 to 4000 inhabitants. DEOGHAR, the only municipality in the District, has a population (1872) of 4861.

Agriculture.—Rice forms the staple food grain of the District. *Járán* or *áman*, the winter crop of the year, is of two kinds—*báo*, which is sown broadcast; and *ropá dhán*, which is transplanted; of these, forty varieties are named. In the alluvial strip of country which runs along the eastern boundary of the District, rice is largely cultivated; and the lower slopes of the ridges in the undulating tract, as well as the swampy ground between those ridges, are also sown with rice. Level terraces are cut out of the hillsides, which thus present the appearance of a series of steps varying from one to five feet in height. These rice terraces are flooded as soon as possible after the rains set in, small banks being left round the edge of each plot to hold the water. Among the other crops of the District are millets, wheat, barley, maize, various pulses and oil-seeds, jute, flax, sugar-cane (of which four varieties are distinguished), cotton, and indigo. There are two seasons for sowing indigo: the spring sowings are put in the ground in March, and reaped in June; and the autumn or October sowings are also cut in June. No accurate statistics are available showing the area under different crops; and it is evident from what has been said regarding the physical aspects of the District, and the mode of rice cultivation in the undulating tract, that there would be considerable difficulty in estimating the aggregate area under rice. The food-grain crops grown in the District are, (1) rice, (2) *janirá* or maize, and (3) other grains, such as millet and pulses. Of this food-grain supply locally produced, rice forms eleven-sixteenths; *janirá* three-sixteenths.

Natural Calamities.—Blight of a serious kind is not known in the Santál Parganá. Owing to the completeness of the natural drainage, floods are almost impossible over a large area; on the rare occasions on which the crops in the alluvial tract have been injured by flood, the loss thus caused was more than compensated by the increased yield of the high lands. Drought caused considerable distress in the Santál Parganá in 1866, and again in 1874. In the former year the price of rice rose in July to $7\frac{1}{2}$ *sers*, and in August to $6\frac{1}{2}$ *sers* for the rupee; in the latter year the highest price was 10 *sers*. The fact of rice rising to 10 or 14 *sers*, or paddy to 20 or 25 *sers*, would indicate the approach of famine, and relief measures would become necessary. It has been remarked that abundant crops of wild fruit are usually concomitants of famine years; and this was the case both in 1866 and in 1874. The *mahuá* tree, which is very common in the Santál highlands, yielded in 1874 a bounteous crop of edible blossoms and seeds; and the mango was plentiful, and formed a sensible addition to the food supply of the people, who live much on wild fruits and herbs. In 1866, the people in this District, as in

other parts of Behar, were forced by want to eat the mangoes while still unripe, and thousands of deaths by cholera were the result.' In 1874, relief was afforded on such a scale that the fruit was allowed to ripen before being plucked, and there was no outbreak of disease.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of the District is carried on by means of permanent markets. The chief exports are rice, Indian corn, oil-seeds, *tasar*-silk cocoons, lac, small-sized timber, hill bamboos, and stone. The imports include European piece-goods, salt, and brass or bell-metal utensils for household use. The principal mart, both for railway and river trade, is SAHIBGANJ, on the Ganges. This place is most favourably situated on the deep channel of the river, which flows at all seasons close under the town; and the railway station is quite near. All the river traffic which passes Sáhíbganj is registered. RAJMAHAL, on the loop-line of the East Indian Railway, is another important mart. Both Sáhíbganj and Rájmahál mainly depend upon their through traffic. They are, in fact, dépôts, where the agricultural produce of the trans-Gangetic Districts of Maldah, Purniah, and Bhágalpur is collected for transmission by rail to Calcutta. The manufactures of the District are insignificant. Iron is roughly smelted; coarse cloth is woven, a few bell-metal utensils are made, and indigo is manufactured on a small scale. There are altogether 260 miles of road in the Santál Parganás; and the District is traversed on the east by the loop-line, and on the west by the chord-line of the East Indian Railway—the total length of both lines, including a portion of the small branch connecting Madhupur with the Karharbári collieries, being about 130 miles. Coal is found in the District, but of such inferior quality that all attempts made to work it have failed. Stone is quarried by an English firm under leases from Government and the *zamíndárs*, and exported down the Ganges to Calcutta for use as road-metal. In 1876-77, the total registered exports of stone amounted to 628,600 *maunds*, valued at £125,720.

Administration.—In 1860-61, the total revenue of the Santál Parganás amounted to £22,680, and the expenditure to £16,845. In 1870-71, the revenue was £38,901, and the expenditure £14,391. It appears, therefore, that there has been a considerable increase in the District revenue, and a trifling decrease in the expenditure. As, however, no detailed returns are available for the earlier year, it is impossible to state to what causes these changes are due. The land tax forms the most important item of revenue, yielding £11,153 in 1870-71. The next largest item was excise, £10,707. There was no increase in the number of courts between 1860 and 1870; there were in each year 10 magisterial, civil, and revenue courts in the District. For police purposes, the Santál Parganás are divided into 7 police circles (*thánds*). In 1872, the regular police force

numbered 299 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £4333. There was also a municipal police of 11 men, costing £80, and a rural police or village watch of 1326 men, costing in actual contributions from the villagers (exclusive of rent-free grants) an estimated sum of £478. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 1636 men of all ranks, giving 1 man to every 3·35 square miles of area or to every 770 of the population. The total estimated cost (exclusive of rent-free grants of land) was £4891, equal to an average of 17s. 10d. per square mile and nearly 1d. per head of population. In the same year, the police conducted 5834 cases of all kinds, the percentage of final convictions to persons brought to trial being 46·2 per cent. *Dákáiti* or gang-robbery is very uncommon, the explanation being that the people of the District are so poor that there is no inducement to the crime. Fifteen murders were committed in 1872, and no fewer than 190 true cases of cattle-lifting occurred. This offence has become more frequent of late in consequence of the rise in the price of hides. There were 2 jails and 4 lock-ups in the Santál Parganás in 1872. The average daily population of the Nayá Dumká jail in that year was 63·86, and in the Rájmahál jail, 118 prisoners. The cost of the jails, including police guard, amounted to £1822. Education has made rapid strides in the Santál Parganás during the last few years. In 1864, there was not a single Government school in the District; in 1870-71, there were only 47; and in 1871-72, 42 Government and aided schools. In 1872-73, owing to the admission of village *pathsálas* to the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules, the number of Government and aided schools had risen to 101. The number of pupils in the State schools in 1870-71 was 832; in 1871-72, 1169; and in 1872-73, 2206. There were also in the last-named year 15 private unaided schools, with 101 pupils. For administrative purposes, the Santál Parganás are divided into 4 Sub-Districts, namely, (1) Nayá Dumká, (2) Rájmahál, (3) Deoghar, and (4) Goddá. There are 32 fiscal divisions (*parganás*) in the District. The gross municipal income of Deoghar (the only municipality in the Santál Parganás) amounted in 1871 to £188, 14s., and the municipal expenditure to £144, 12s.; rate of municipal taxation, 9½d. per head.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the Santál Parganás varies in the different tracts which have been referred to in describing the physical features of the District. The alluvial strip of land has the damp heat and moist soil characteristic of Bengal; while the undulating and hilly portions are swept by the hot westerly winds of Behar, and resemble in their rapid drainage and dry subsoil the lower plateau of Chutiá Nágpur. In this undulating tract the winter months are very cool, but the hot season is correspondingly trying. The average annual rainfall is over 50 inches. The prevailing endemic diseases of the

District are fevers of the ordinary type, bowel complaints, and skin diseases. The hill tracts of Rájmahál are very malarious. Epidemics of cholera and small-pox break out from time to time, but have been for the most part confined to the town of Deoghar. The death-rate in two selected urban districts in 1873 was 35·78 per thousand of the population; and in two rural areas, 18·46 per thousand. There are 4 charitable dispensaries in the Santál Parganá.

Sántalpur-with-Chádchat.—Native State in the Political Superintendency of Pálanpur, Bombay. The two Subdivisions of Sántalpur and Chádchat together form an estate ruled by a number of petty chieftains. Bounded on the north by the Márwára and Singám estates, on the east by the States of Wáráhi and Rádhanpur, and on the south and west by the Rann of Cutch. The two estates measure together about 37 miles in length, and 17 miles in breadth. Area, 440 square miles; pop. (1872), 18,193; estimated yearly revenue, £3500. The country is flat and open. *Ghasiá* or self-produced salt is found in large quantities. There are no rivers, but many ponds exist, which in normal seasons retain water till March, when the inhabitants have to depend upon wells for their supply of water. Fever is common. The holders of this State are Járeja Rájputs, kinsmen of the Ráo of Cutch, by whom the country was conquered about 400 years ago. The ruling family hold no *sanad* authorizing adoption. In matters of succession they follow the rule of primogeniture.

Santapilly (*Sentapilli*).—Village and lighthouse in Vizagapatam District, Madras.—See CHANTAPILLI.

Sántipur.—The most populous town in Nadiyá District, Bengal; situated on the river Húgli, in lat. 23° 14' 24" N., and long. 88° 29' 6" E. Area, 7 square miles; pop. (1872), 28,635, of whom 13,953 were returned as weavers in the Census Report; municipal income (1871), £1589; rate of taxation, 1s. 1½d. per head of population. Sántipur is famous for its cloth manufactures, which were at first spread throughout the whole District, but afterwards became centralized in this town, owing to its being the site of a commercial residency and the centre of large factories under the East India Company. Considerable trade in local exports and imports. The *Rás-játrá* festival, in honour of Krishna, is celebrated at Sántipur on the day of the full moon in Kártik (October or November). The fair is visited by about 25,000 or 26,000 persons, and continues for three days, on the last of which there is a procession along the high-road. Sántipur is also a celebrated bathing-place.

Sáoli.—Town in Chánda District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 5' N., and long. 79° 50' E., 7 miles east of Múl. Population chiefly Telingá. Manufacture of cotton cloth; and trade in cotton, cotton cloth, grain, groceries, and *gúr*. Sáoli has a weekly market, and contains Government schools for boys and girls.

Sáoligarh.—State forest, yielding teak and *sál*, in the north of Betúl District, Central Provinces. Comprises several blocks of hills between the Moran river on the east and north, and Rájáborái on the west. Area, 130 square miles.

Sáoner (*Sonair*).—Thriving town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. $21^{\circ} 23' N.$, and long. $78^{\circ} 58' E.$, 24 miles north-west of Nágpur city, near the main road to Chhindwára, with which place a good branch road connects the town. Pop. (1872), 5295, chiefly agricultural. The Kolár river flows through the town, which stands on a fertile and well-cultivated plain. It has a circular market-place, with large masonry platforms, from which two broad metalled roads lead south-west and west through the most populous quarters, and are connected by a third street of similar character. Chief manufactures—cotton cloth, which is largely exported, and an inferior snuff, made by the Musalmán population. A large cattle fair is held weekly. Sáoner has a travellers' bungalow (rest-house), a handsome *sardí* (native inn), a police station, and a school, in which English is taught. The fort in the centre of the town, now ruined, must once have been large and strong. Tradition relates that it was built by Gauli chiefs before the days of the Gonds; but for many generations Sáoner has belonged to the Gond family of Swasthánik.

Saptagrám.—Ruined town in Húgli District, Bengal.—See SATGAON.

Sar.—Lake in Purí District, Bengal. A back-water of the BHARGAVI river, situated to the north-east of Purí town; its length from east to west is 4 miles, and its breadth from north to south 2 miles. Lat. (centre) $19^{\circ} 51' 30'' N.$, long. $85^{\circ} 55' E.$ This lake has no outlet to the sea, and is separated from it by desolate sandy ridges, which are entirely destitute of inhabitants. The Sar is not used to any extent for fisheries; its water, however, is employed for irrigation when the rainfall proves deficient.

Sará.—*Parganá* in Hardoi District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Alamnagar, on the east by Mansúrnagar, on the south-east and south by Gopámau and Báwan, and on the west by Sháhábád. A *parganá* with a rich fertile soil, and a large area occupied with *jhils* and marshes. Area, 90 square miles, of which 49 are cultivated. The main products are wheat and barley, which occupy nearly one-half the total cultivated area. Pop. (1869), 34,972, namely, 33,375 Hindus and 1597 Muhammadans. Of the 87 villages comprising the *parganá*, 59 are owned by Chamár Gaurs. Only 1 of these villages is held in *tálukdári* tenure, 40 in *zamindári*, 43 in imperfect *pattidári*, and 3 in *bháyáchára* tenure. Government land revenue, £6013; equal to an average of 3s. 11½d. per cultivated acre, or 2s. 1d. per acre of total area.

Sarágaj (or *Langla*).—Hill range in the south of Sylhet District,

Assam, running northwards as a spur from the State of Hill Tipperah. Estimated area, 81 square miles ; height above sea level, 700 feet.

Saragúr (*Sargúr*).—Municipal village in Mysore District, Mysore ; situated in lat. $12^{\circ} 0' 10''$ N., and long. $76^{\circ} 25'$ E., on the right bank of the Kabbani, 36 miles south-west of Mysore city ; since 1864 headquarters of the Heggaddevankot *taluk*. Pop. (1871), 1626 ; municipal revenue (1874-75), £37 ; rate of taxation, 5d. per head. Owes its administrative importance to its healthy position, the neighbourhood being free from jungle.

Saráhán.—Town in Bashahr State, Punjab ; situated in lat. $31^{\circ} 30'$ N., and long. $77^{\circ} 50'$ E., in a wooded amphitheatre, 3 miles from the left bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), and backed up by the snow-clad summits of the Kullu Mountains. Thornton describes it as the summer residence of the Bashahr Rájá. Tasteful houses in Thibetan style, with pent-roofs, balconies, and intricate carved woodwork. Handsome temple dedicated to the goddess Káli. Northern limit of the Bráhmans, none of whom reside to the north of the town. Elevation above sea level, 7246 feet.

Sarái Aghat.—Town and ruins in Etah District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 3276. Distant from Etah town 43 miles south-east, from SANKISA three-quarters of a mile north-west. Lies on either side of a ravine of the Káli Nadi. *Bázár* of well-built houses, leading to a central market-place. Police station, school-house. Trade in cotton, grain, and indigo seed. Founded toward the close of the 17th century by three Afghán leaders, who came from Farrukhábád District, and built the Sarái Abdur Rásul and a mosque. West of the village stands a lofty and extensive mound, 40 feet in height and about half a mile in diameter, the northern portion being built over with brick houses. It bears the name of Aghat, derived from Muni Agastya, the mythical regenerator of the Deccan. The houses on the top have been built of bricks from the mound, part of which has been honey-combed by excavations in search of building materials. Images of Buddha, together with gold, silver, and copper coins of all ages, frequently occur. In 1843, about £2000 worth were found among the ruins. Aghat probably formed part of the ancient city of SANKISA.

Sáraikalá.—Political estate in Singbhúm District, Bengal, lying between $22^{\circ} 33'$ and $22^{\circ} 54' 30''$ N. lat., and between $85^{\circ} 53'$ and $86^{\circ} 13'$ E. long. Area, 457 square miles ; pop. (1872), 66,347, inhabiting 568 villages or townships (*mauzds*), and 13,675 houses. Average density, 145 persons per square mile ; number of villages per square mile, 1.24 ; houses per square mile, 30 ; persons per house, 4.9.

Sáraikalá.—Village in Sáraikalá estate, Singbhúm District, Bengal. Lat. $22^{\circ} 41' 52''$ N., long. $85^{\circ} 58' 28''$ E. Bi-weekly market for District produce and articles of trade. Bengali school.

Sarai Salih.—Town in Hazara District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 2887. Stands in the Haripur plain, of which it forms the ancient commercial centre. Considerable local traffic. Large colony of weavers. Goldsmiths from this place have been in the habit for generations of visiting Afghánistán and Central Asia in pursuit of their trade.

Sarai Sidhu.—Northern *tahsil* of Múltán (Mooltan) District, Punjab; consisting of a lowland strip on either bank of the Beas (Biás) river, together with an extensive tract of barren upland. Area, 1748 square miles; pop. (1868), 65,734; persons per square mile, 87; number of villages, 244.

Sarai Sidhu.—Town in Múltán (Mooltan) District, Punjab. Lat. $30^{\circ} 35' 30''$ N., long. $72^{\circ} 1'$ E.

Sáran.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between $25^{\circ} 40'$ and $26^{\circ} 38'$ N. lat., and between $83^{\circ} 58'$ and $85^{\circ} 14'$ E. long. Area (according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1879), 2654 square miles; population (according to the Census of 1872), 2,063,860 souls. Sáran forms one of the north-western Districts of the Patná Division. It is bounded on the north by the District of Gorakhpur in the North-Western Provinces; on the east by the Bengal Districts of Champáran and Muzaffarpur, the boundary line being formed by the river Gandak; on the south by the Ganges, which separates it from Sháhábád and Patná Districts; on the south-west by the District of Azimgarh in the North-Western Provinces, the Gandak again forming the boundary line; and on the west by Gorakhpur District. The administrative headquarters are at CHHAPRA, which is also the most populous town of the District.

Jurisdiction.—Sáran formerly constituted one District with Champáran. The revenue areas of the two Districts were not finally separated until 1866; but the magisterial jurisdictions were first divided in 1837. The Judge of Sáran still holds sessions at Motihári in Champáran. The subdivision of Sewán was opened in 1848, and a second subdivision at Gopálganj was sanctioned in 1875.

Physical Aspects.—Sáran forms a vast alluvial plain, bounded on three sides by the great rivers Gandak, Gogra (Ghagrá), and Ganges, and intersected by numerous *nadis* or water-channels, which flow in a south-easterly direction, and carry off the drainage of the District. The rivers run on a higher level than the adjacent country, which is therefore liable to inundation when they overtop their banks. Beneath these high banks, lie the basins in which the surface drainage primarily collects, to be discharged into the running channels at a lower stage in their course. The District has the shape of an isosceles triangle. The base, which is very irregular, lies to the north-west; one of the equal sides is formed by the Gandak, and the other by the Gogra and the Ganges; while the apex is at the south-east corner, where the

Gandak and the Ganges join at Sonpur. From this spot, the levels slope very gently up towards the western parts of the District. Kochai Kot, in the north-west corner, is 222 feet above mean sea level, while Sonpur is only 168 feet. The whole District is beautifully wooded, and mango-groves are very numerous. The lower levels are but sparingly used for rice cultivation; high rice lands predominate, and on these indigo, opium, wheat, barley, and several kinds of pulse are also grown. The soil is in many places saliferous, and saltpetre is extracted by the Núniyás, a poor and hardy caste. There are no hills in Sárán. The only rivers which are navigable all the year round are the three great streams already mentioned—the GANGES, GANDAK, and GOGRA. Among the smaller *nadís*, many of which dry up altogether in the hot weather, are the Sundí or Dáhá, the Jharáhi, the Gandakí, the Gangrí, the Dhanáí, and the Khatsá, all of which ultimately fall into the Gogra or the Ganges. The drainage of the District is from north-west to south-east, and is carried off by the many small *nadís* into the larger streams. When the rainfall is unusually heavy, these *nadís* are unable to contain all the water, and large tracts of cultivated ground are inundated. The consequences are specially disastrous when the mouths of the *nadís* are stopped by high floods in the great rivers into which they flow. There is very little jungle in Sárán, and large game is not met with, although both tigers and leopards are said to have been at one time very common in the District. Among the game birds found are quail, wild duck, snipe, plover, partridge, ortolans, and green pigeons. Snakes are very numerous.

Population.—Several early estimates were made of the population of Sárán. In 1800, a calculation based on an enumeration of the houses gave 1,104,000 as the number of inhabitants; but this included the present District of Champáran, which was not separated from Sárán until 1837. Estimates based on similar enumerations were made in 1843, 1847, 1854, 1855, and 1860, the earliest giving a population of 1,376,215, and the latest 1,271,729. The first accurate Census was that taken in 1872, which disclosed a total population of 2,063,860 persons, inhabiting 4350 villages and 293,524 houses. The area over which the Census was taken being 2654 square miles, the following averages are obtained:—Number of villages per square mile, 1·64; houses per square mile, 111; persons per village, 474; persons per house, 7; persons per square mile, 778. The density of population is greater than in any other District of Lower Bengal, except the metropolitan Districts of the Twenty-four Parganás and Húglí. In the *sadr* or headquarters Subdivision, the density rises to 859, while in three *thánds* of that Subdivision (Dighwára, Mánjhi, and Mashrak) the average exceeds 900. Even in the two *thánds* where population is least dense, viz. Baragton and Barauli, the rates per square mile

are 605 and 620 respectively. Classified according to sex, the population is divided into 996,683 males and 1,067,177 females; percentage of males, 48·3. This low proportion is explained by the fact that a large number of the men leave the District for service or as soldiers. Previous to the Mutiny, it is said that as many as 10,000 sepoyes were natives of this District. Classified according to age, there are, under 12 years—boys, 389,786, and girls, 353,524; total, 743,310: over 12—males, 606,897, and females, 713,653; total, 1,320,550. The ethnical division of the people gives the following results:—Europeans number 95, of whom 88 are British; of mixed race (Eurasians) there are 29; and the remainder, 2,063,736, are Asiatics, including 16 Nepálís. The number of Hindus is 1,577,914; persons of Hindu origin not recognising caste, 22,952; Muhammadans, 241,590; aboriginal tribes, 7796; semi-Hinduized aborigines, 213,468. The chief aboriginal tribe in Sárán is that of the Bhars, who number 7647; while of the semi-Hinduized aborigines, the most numerous tribes are the Chamárs, or workers in leather (94,844), the Dosádhs (73,046), and the Binds (18,429). Superior Hindu castes are largely represented, the Bráhmans numbering 158,109 and the Rájputs 225,873. The most numerous caste in Sárán is that of the Goálas (or Ahírs), the herdsmen of the country. They bear a bad character for turbulence and dishonesty, and figure largely in the jail returns. Other numerous castes are—the Koeris (141,209), who are the best cultivators in the District, holding most of the opium lands, from which they raise first-rate crops; and the Kurmís (100,790), also an agricultural caste. Of the 22,952 persons described in the Census Report as being of Hindu origin, but not recognising caste, the large majority, 18,612, are Atiths, a sect of Sivaïtes who are in theory celibates. Vaishnavs number 3777. The Muhammadans are divided into 430,030 Shaikhs, 11,420 Patháns, 3710 Sayyids, and 369 Mughals, while 183,061 are ‘unspecified,’ making a total of 241,590. Classified on the basis of religion, the population of Sárán consists of—1,822,048 Hindus, or 88·3 per cent. of the total population; 241,590 Muhammadans, or 11·3 per cent.; 207 Christians, and 16 ‘others.’ The population is entirely agricultural, the so-called towns being, with the exception of the three municipalities of CHHAPRA, SEWAN, and REVELGANJ, merely large villages or collections of hamlets in the midst of which are conducted all the operations of rural life. No fewer than 71 of these ‘towns’ contain between 2000 and 5000 persons; 2 have from 5000 to 6000; 2 from 10,000 to 15,000; and 1 nearly 50,000. Of towns proper the five most populous are—CHHAPRA, pop. (1872) 46,287; REVELGANJ, 13,415; ALIGANJ SEWAN, 11,099; PANAPUR, 5871; and MANJHI, 5747. Of these, the first three are municipalities, with a total income in 1872 of £3383.

Agriculture.—Rice is, perhaps, the most important crop grown in Sárán ; though the area under rice is largely exceeded by the collective area under such inferior grains as *makai*, *kodo*, and *maruá*. It consists of two great harvests—the *bhadai* or autumn harvest, and the *agháni* or winter harvest, the latter being by far the larger of the two. The *bhadai* is generally sown broadcast on high ground in June, and reaped in September. Its chief varieties are, (1) *sathí*, (2) *sarha*, (3) *kathi* or *munga*, and (4) *karháni*. *Agháni* rice is sown on low ground. In June, after rain has fallen, a nursery is selected, and ploughed three or four times before the seed is sown. It is afterwards transplanted, and is harvested in December or January. The 33 principal varieties of this rice are as follows :—(1) *Bhoinsloti*, (2) *kanugá*, (3) *kháhá*, (4) *jágar*, (5) *senegra*, (6) *jasariá*, (7) *thanomí*, (8) *sáro*, (9) *será*, (10) *sallá*, (11) *shakhjirá*, (12) *kalunji*, (13) *sátul*, (14) *seldá*, (15) *línji*, (16) *bataráni*, (17) *kájri*, (18) *láldána*, (19) *umath*, (20) *rathgoli*, (21) *dachni*, (22) *bellaur*, (23) *baharni*, (24) *bánsmati*, (25) *sámjitrá*, (26) *jágar*, (27) *khera*, (28) *rás*, (29) *paháridá*, (30) *singhár*, (31) *syámsundar*, (32) *karanga*, and (33) *gajpatta*. Other cereals cultivated are wheat, barley, and Indian corn. Green crops comprise *matar* or peas, *khesari*, gram, *arhar*, *mug*, *urid*, beans, sweet potatoes, mustard-seed, etc. Cotton, hemp, and flax are also grown. *Pán* or betel-leaf is generally cultivated on high land situated near a well or tank, in the vicinity of the homestead. Special crops comprise tobacco, sugar-cane, indigo, and opium ; the latter being cultivated only under Government licence. The total area under indigo is estimated at 45,000 acres, yielding an average output of 8000 cwt., valued at £280,000. The total area under poppy is about 50,000 acres, with a yield of 900,000 lbs. Manure is used whenever it can be procured, and irrigation is largely practised for the cold-weather crops. The poorer class of cultivators are, as a rule, deeply in debt. Rents are high, the following being returned as the average rates throughout the District : Transplanted rice, 9s. 6½d. per acre ; broadcast rice, 6s. 9d. ; Indian corn, wheat, *maruá*, *arhar*, and cotton, 11s. 3d. ; *kodo*, barley, and pulse, 9s. 5½d. ; poppy, 15s. 8d. ; indigo, 10s. 4½d. ; and sugar-cane, 9s. 11d. It is very common to find Bráhmans, Bábhans, Rájputs, and other high castes holding the best lands in a village at rates varying from 50 to 75 per cent. below what a low-caste man pays for inferior land. Rents are now almost invariably paid in money, instead of in kind, as was formerly common. As a general rule, the cultivators claim to hold under a right of occupancy, but such tenures are rarely transferable, except with permission of the landlord. Tenants holding their lands without liability to enhancement do not number more than 5 per cent. of the whole. Wages have increased about 30 per cent. of late years. The rates for ordinary day-labourers vary from 2½d. to 3d. per

day, according as they are employed in the country or the town; women and boys receive from $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. to $2\frac{1}{2}$ d. per day. Bricklayers and blacksmiths get from $4\frac{1}{2}$ d. to 6d. a day; sawyers, $4\frac{1}{2}$ d.; and carpenters, from $3\frac{1}{2}$ d. to 6d. a day. Prices of food grains have also risen in like proportion. In 1871-72, which may be taken as an ordinary year, 40 lbs. of common rice could be obtained for the rupee. In 1877-78, when scarcity prevailed owing to an ill-distributed rainfall and excessive exportation to Southern India, only 27 lbs. of rice were to be got for the same money. Ancient records show that in 1790 the price was 150 lbs. for the rupee.

Natural Calamities.—The District is subject to blight, flood, and drought. The most common kind of blight is called *hindd*, a mildew which attacks wheat and barley. Insects do considerable damage; and also hailstorms in the cold weather. Sárán District, being bounded on two sides by large rivers, which flow on ridges and carry enormous volumes of water, is peculiarly exposed to inundation. The northern side of the District is now, however, completely protected by the Gandak embankment. Towards the south, along the banks of the Ganges and Gogra, protective works are still required, as large tracts are inundated nearly every year. The old records are full of complaints about these inundations, which in many cases rendered a remission of revenue necessary. The most noteworthy floods of late years occurred in 1871 and 1874. Droughts have occurred several times, the worst known having taken place in 1866 and 1874, both of which were caused by the failure of the local rains. During the scarcity of 1874, relief works on an extensive scale were undertaken by Government, and in the first fortnight of June a daily average of 229,885 persons were employed in road-making. Advances of grain were made to the extent of 324,831 *maunds*. Prices were kept down, however, by Government importations, and the highest rate reached for common rice in 1874 was 12s. $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. per cwt., as against £1, 1s. 10d. per cwt. in 1866. To remedy this liability to drought, a scheme of irrigation was commenced in 1878, by which the waters of the Gandak will be led through the centre of the District. The total cost is estimated at only £50,000, on which sum a few planters and *zamindárs* have guaranteed interest at the rate of $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The total area to be irrigated is estimated at 140,000 acres.

Means of Communication, Trade, etc. — The District possesses a total length of 890 miles of made road, but there are no railways or canals. The principal manufactures are indigo, sugar, brass-work, pottery, saltpetre, and cloth. The chief exports from the District are oil-seeds, indigo, saltpetre, sugar, grain of all sorts, except rice; the principal articles of import being rice, salt, and European piece-goods. The great trading mart of the District is Revelganj. In 1876-77, the

total registered river traffic of Sárán District, including both imports and exports, amounted to just two millions sterling. A great portion of this total is merely through traffic, which comes down from Oudh and the North-Western Provinces, and changes boat at Revelganj and Semuria, on its way to Patna or Calcutta. Revelganj is perhaps the largest mart for oilseeds (chiefly linseed) in all India. In 1876-77, the total registered import of oilseeds into the District was valued at £265,000; the total export was £370,000, thus leaving a balance of more than £100,000 for the local produce. As regards food grains, however, the figures show decisively that Sárán is unable to supply its own dense population. In 1876-77, the imports of food grains of all kinds were valued at £326,000, as compared with exports valued at only £118,000. The other principal items of export were indigo (£179,000), and saltpetre and other saline substances (£67,000). Salt was imported to the value of £143,000.

Administration.—In 1794, the net revenue of the District (which then included Champáran) amounted to £195,254, with a civil expenditure of £27,496; in 1850-51, the revenue (including Champáran) was £230,567, with an expenditure of £24,131; in 1870-71 (after the separation of Champáran), the net revenue of Sárán was £185,072, with a civil expenditure of £43,826. The land tax, here as elsewhere, forms by far the greatest proportion of the District revenue, and amounted in 1870-71 to £122,344, paid by 3400 separate estates. For police purposes the District is divided into 10 circles (*thánás*). The regular police force in 1872 consisted of 408 officers and men, maintained at a cost of £6990, or an average of 1 policeman to every 6·5 square miles of the District area and to every 5058 of the population. The municipal force in the towns consisted of 173 men of all ranks, maintained at a cost to municipal funds of £1322. The village watch or rural police numbered 6067 men, maintained, either by the *zamíndárs* or by service lands held rent free, at an estimated total cost of £5522 a year. Each village watchman has charge of 41 houses on an average, and receives an average pay in money or lands of 12 *ánnás* a month, or 18s. a year. Including the regular police, municipal police, and the village watch, the total machinery for protecting person and property in Sárán District consisted, at the end of 1872, of 6648 men of all ranks; equal to an average of 1 man to every 0·39 of a square mile of the District area, or to every 310 of the population. The estimated cost from all sources of maintaining this force, including value of rent-free lands, amounted in 1872 to £13,834; equal to a charge of £5, 4s. 3d. per square mile of the area, or about 1½d. per head of the population. There are 2 jails in the District, at Chhaprá and Sewán towns, with a daily average prison population in 1870 of 311, the total admissions being 1422.

Average cost of maintenance per prisoner, £6, 6s. 8d.; average earnings per prisoner, £1, 13s. 11d. Serious crime is not very prevalent the principal criminal classes being the Dosádhs, Ahírs, and Maghya Doms. Education has rapidly progressed since the introduction of Sir George Campbell's educational reforms in 1872. In 1870-71, there were only 9 Government or aided schools in the District, attended by 585 pupils. At the close of the year 1873-74, the inspected schools numbered 326, with 7066 pupils; equal to an average of 1 school for every 8 square miles of the District area, and 3·4 pupils to every thousand of the population. For administrative and fiscal purposes, Sárán is divided into 2 Subdivisions and 17 *pargánas*.

Medical Aspects.—The seasons in Sárán are very similar to those of Tirhut, but perhaps a little hotter. The hot weather begins about the end of Márch; and in a fortnight afterwards, hot westerly winds begin to blow during the day. At night, the wind comes generally from the east, and the temperature is comparatively cool, being lowered by occasional thunderstorms. The rains set in about the middle of Júné, and continue, with intermissions, till about the end of September or the middle of October. September is by far the most trying month of the year; the air is damp and steamy, while the sun's rays are extremely strong. The cold weather begins about the middle of October, and continues till the beginning of March. Average annual rainfall, 45·27 inches. The prevailing diseases are cholera, small-pox, fever, and dysentery. The civil surgeon states that it is doubtful if cholera is ever really absent from the District; and it commits great ravages towards the end of the hot and beginning of the rainy season. Small-pox comes next in intensity, but the people are beginning to avail themselves of vaccination. Both diseases are said to be now on the decrease, owing to the improved habits of the people and the high state of cultivation. The people who live in the neighbourhood of low rice lands suffer a good deal from fever. Dysentery, the result of bad water and insufficient clothing, is sometimes very severe. Six Government charitable dispensaries afford medical relief at Chhaprá, Sewán, Hatwá, Bhorí, Gopálganj, and Revelganj. Cattle-disease exists in the form of *guti* or rinderpest, and *kurhá* or foot-and-mouth disease.

Sáranda.—Hill range in the extreme south-west corner of Singbhúm District, bordering on Gangpur State, Bengal. Consists of a grand mass of mountains, rising to the height of 3500 feet, known as 'Sáranda of the seven hundred hills.' The population inhabiting this region is scattered over a few poor hamlets nestling in deep valleys, and belongs for the most part to one of the least reclaimed tribes of Kols.

Sáranda.—One of the *pírs* or groups of villages of the Kolhán, in
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Singbhúm District, Bengal. According to the Survey of 1868, the *pir* contains 43 villages. Lat. $22^{\circ} 1' 15''$ to $22^{\circ} 30' N.$; long. $85^{\circ} 2' to 85^{\circ} 28' E.$

Sárangarh.—Native State attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces, formerly one of the *Athára Garhjât* or 'Eighteen Forts'; lying between $21^{\circ} 21'$ and $21^{\circ} 45' 0'' N.$ lat., and between $82^{\circ} 59'$ and $83^{\circ} 31' E.$ long. Bounded on the north by the Chandrapur chiefship and Ráigarh State, on the east by Sambalpur District, on the south by the Phuljhar chiefship, and on the west by Biláspur District. Pop. (1872), 37,091 (of whom 25,438 were Hindus), residing in 364 villages and 7632 houses. Area, 540 square miles, of which 320 were cultivated in 1877, while of the portion lying waste 80 square miles were returned as cultivable. Density of population, 68.68 persons per square mile. The country is generally level, but in the south and east rise two considerable ranges of hills. The Mahánadi flows to the north of the State; the only other river worth mention is the Láth. Though no large forests remain, patches of *sáj*, *dháurá*, *tendú*, etc. are met with here and there. The wild buffaloes, formerly numerous, have abandoned the State; but tigers, bears, and leopards still range the hills and jungle. The soil is for the most part light and friable, with a strong admixture of sand. Rice forms the staple crop; but pulses, oil-seeds, sugar-cane, cotton, and a little wheat are also produced. The only manufactures are *tasar*-silk cloth and coarse cotton cloth; and though iron-ore abounds, no mines are worked. The main road between Sambalpur and Ráipur runs along part of the southern boundary, and the Mahánadi supplies means of communication by water for 50 miles. The Chhatísarh dialect is the spoken language of the State, and the Hindí character is used for writing. The chief is a Gond, and traces his origin through 54 generations up to Jagdeva Sá, a son of Narendra Sá, Rájá of Lánjí in Bhandára about 91 A.D. In return for military assistance, Narsinh Deva, Rájá of Ratanpur, presented Jagdeva Sá with a *khilat* or personal mark of distinction, and conferred on him the title of *diwán*, together with 84 villages in the Sárangarh tract. Forty-two generations later, when Kalyán Sá was *diwán*, Raghojí Bhonslá of Nágpur was stopped on his way to Cuttack by the Phuljhar people, who held the Singhora Pass against him. Raghojí applied to Banojí, Rájá of Ratanpur, who directed Kalyán Sá to clear the pass. For this service, Kalyán Sá received the title of Rájá, with the right to carry a standard. The title was confirmed by Rájá Chhatra Sá of Sambalpur, when Sárangarh became a dependency of his kingdom; and by their military assistance from time to time to the Sambalpur princes, succeeding Rájás of Sárangarh gained further grants of villages and *pargánás*, and gradually made Sárangarh a State of some importance. The only

remarkable building in the State is the temple of Samleswar Deva, erected in 1748 by Aditya Sá Dīwán. Sangrám Sinh, the late Rájá, established a good school at his chief town, and there are also indigenous schools in other parts. In 1872, 303 boys under twelve, and 564 males above that age, were returned as able to read and write, or as being under instruction. During the minority of the present Rájá, Bhawáni Pratáb Sinh, his mother, has administered the State. The tribute is £135; and the estimated gross revenue, £800. The climate is unhealthy, and fever prevails widely from September to November.

Saraswatí (Sarsutí).—Sacred river of the Punjab, famous in the early Bráhmānical annals. Rises in lat. $30^{\circ} 23' N.$, long. $77^{\circ} 19' E.$, just beyond the British border, in the low hills of Sírmúr State; emerges upon the plain at Zadh Budri in Ambála, a place esteemed sacred by all Hindus; flows in a general south-westerly direction, and loses itself more than once in the sands, but reappears again with little diminished volume; passes by the holy town of Thanesar and the numerous shrines of the Kurukshetra, a tract celebrated as a centre of pilgrimages; enters Karnál District and Patialá State, and finally joins the Ghaggar in Sírsa District (lat. $29^{\circ} 51' N.$, long. $76^{\circ} 5' E.$).

In ancient times, the united stream below the point of junction appears to have borne the name of Sarsutí, and, undiminished by irrigation near the hills, to have flowed across the Rájputána plains, debouching into the Indus below its confluence with the Punjab rivers. The deserted bed can still be traced as far as Mirgarh in Baháwalpur; but the water now penetrates no farther than Bhatner in Rájputána, where its trickling streams finally lose themselves in the sandy plain. The numerous dams across the hill torrents at the foot of the mountains probably account for the drying up of the ancient channel. The name of Saraswatí, 'the river of pools,' sufficiently describes the character of the stream in its upper portion, where it dries up partially in the early months of the year, becoming a mere succession of separate ponds. To each of these is attached a legend and a shrine, visited by thousands of pilgrims every year. According to Hindu legend, the disappearance of the Saraswatí in the sands is accounted for as follows:—Saraswatí was the daughter of Mahádeo; but her father one day, in a drunken fit, approaching her with the intention of violating her modesty, the Hindu Arethusā fled, and dived underground whenever she saw her pursuer gaining upon her; and the river, which sprang up in her track, still disappears underground at the self-same spots. By devout Hindus the Saraswatí is supposed to flow in a subterranean course till it joins the Ganges and the Jumna (Jamuná) at ALLAHABAD, where the moisture on the walls of the crypt in the temple of the Undying Banian tree forms a conclusive proof of its existence in the eyes of the faithful. The real direction of the Saraswatí basin, however, lies towards the Indus below

Mithámkot. Some of the earliest Aryan settlements in India were on the banks of the Saraswatí, and the surrounding country has from almost Vedic times been held in high veneration. The Hindus identify the river with Saraswatí, the Sanskrit Goddess of Speech. See Muir's *Orig. Sanskrit Texts*, vol. i., many passages (ed. 1868); General Cunningham's *Anc. Geog. Ind.* pp. 331-33 (ed. 1871); Prof. Dowson's *Dict. Hindu Mythol.* p. 284 (ed. 1879); and article INDIA, *ante*, Vol. iv.

Saraswatí.—River of Húglí District, Bengal. Formerly the main stream of the Ganggs, and navigable by large vessels as far as SATGAON, the royal port of Bengal in the 16th century. The Saraswatí has now silted up, and become a foul shallow creek, branching south-west from the Húglí near Tribeni, lat. $22^{\circ} 59' N.$, long. $88^{\circ} 26' 45'' E.$ An offshoot of the ancient stream debouches into the Dámodar, near Amptá, the main channel falling into the Húglí a short distance below the Calcutta Botanical Gardens. The remains of large ships are frequently discovered many feet deep in the ground, which now covers the bed of the Saraswatí.

Saraswatí.—River of Western India, rising in Mount Abu, Rájputána. Flowing through the Pálanpur and Rádhanpur States of the Mahi Kántha Agency, and through the Patan Subdivision of Baroda State, the Saraswatí, after a south-westerly course of over 100 miles, enters the Rann of Cutch to the east of the State of that name. In the vicinity of Sidhpur and Patan towns, by which the river passes, the Saraswatí is said to have a subterraneous course of several miles, reappearing before it enters the Rádhanpur territory. The river is fordable almost everywhere; its banks and bed are generally sandy; it is nowhere navigable. The only importance of the Saraswatí consists in its sanctity. It is visited by Hindus, especially those who have lost their mothers; Sidhpur on this river being considered the appropriate place to perform rités in honour of a deceased mother, as Gayá in Behar is assigned for ceremonies in honour of a deceased father.

Sáráthá.—Port on the river of the same name in Balasor District, Bengal. Lat. $21^{\circ} 34' 45'' N.$, long. $87^{\circ} 8' 16'' E.$ Frequented by native rice sloops, the river being navigable as far as Nalitagarh, 8 miles from the sea. The sister port of Sáráthá is CHHANUYA.

Sarath Deogarh.—Sub-District and town in the Santál Parganá, Bengal.—See DEOGARH.

Sarayan.—River of Oudh. Rising in Kheri District in lat. $27^{\circ} 46' N.$, and long. $80^{\circ} 32' E.$, after a course of 49 miles in a south-easterly direction it enters Sítápur District, where it receives the Jamwári on its left bank, in lat. $27^{\circ} 32' N.$, and long. $80^{\circ} 47' E.$ Thence it flows for about 3 miles in a north-westerly course, and, resuming its previous direction, joins the GUMTI in lat. $27^{\circ} 9' N.$, and long. $80^{\circ} 55' E.$ Total length, about 95 miles. It causes destructive floods in some

years, as it drains a considerable area of country with its numerous affluents.

Sáda.—River of North-Western India and Oudh, which takes its rise in the loftier ranges of the Himálayas, which separate Kumáun from Thibet, at an altitude of 18,000 feet. It debouches from the hills at Barmdeo, 148 miles from its source, in lat. $29^{\circ} 6' N.$, and long. $80^{\circ} 13' E.$, at an altitude of 847 feet above sea level. The river is here 450 feet broad, with a minimum discharge of 5600 cubic feet per second. Shortly after leaving Barmdeo, it divides into several channels, which reunite 9 miles farther down at Banbása, but again separate, and finally join at Mandiá Ghát, 168 miles from its source, where the last rapids occur, and the stream becomes an ordinary river of the plains. Eleven miles lower down, it touches British territory in Khairigarh *parganá*, Oudh; and 11 miles farther on, or 190 miles from its source, it joins the CHAUKA near Mothia Ghát. From this point the united stream takes the name of the Chauka, till it falls into the GOGRA on its right bank, in lat. $27^{\circ} 9' N.$, and long. $81^{\circ} 30' E.$

Sardhána.—*Tahsil* of Meerut (Míraṭh) District, North-Western Provinces, lying on either side of the Hindan river, and watered by the Ganges and Eastern Jumna Canals. Area, 251 square miles, of which 184 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 147,398; land revenue, £30,043; total Government revenue, £33,051; rental paid by the cultivators, £55,455.

Sardhána.—Town in Meerut (Míraṭh) District, North-Western Provinces, and former capital of the famous Begam Samru. Lat. $29^{\circ} 9' 6'' N.$, long. $77^{\circ} 39' 26'' E.$; pop. (1872), 12,466, consisting of 6471 Hindus, 5641 Muhammadans, and 354 Christians. Stands on a low site, near the Ganges Canal, 12 miles north-west of Meerut city. The town has a poor and decayed appearance, being in a decadent condition since the death of the famous Begam Samru. Northward lies Lashkarganj, founded by the Begam as a camp, and the old fort; next succeeds a wide parade-ground; and southward stands the town itself. Local tradition assigns the foundation of Sardhána to one Rájá Sarkat at a period anterior to the Muhammadan conquest. Its modern history is interesting from its connection with the well-known adventurers Walter Reinhard and George Thomas. The following sketch is condensed from an account given in the official Gazetteer of Meerut. Walter Reinhard, a soldier of fortune, better known by the name of Samru or Sombre, was a butcher by profession, and a native of Luxemburg. He came to India as a soldier in the French army, and deserting that service, took employment with the British, where he attained to the rank of sergeant. Deserting again, he rejoined the French service at Chandernagore, and on the surrender of that settlement accompanied M. Law in his wanderings throughout India from 1757 to 1760. In the latter year, Law's party joined the army of Sháh Alam in Bengal,

and remained with the emperor until his defeat in 1760 at Gaya by Colonel Carnac, in his attempt to reconquer Bengal from the Nawab. Samru next entered the service of Mír Kásim, by whom he was employed to murder the English prisoners at Patna (PATNA DISTRICT, q. v.) in October 1763. He succeeded in escaping into Oudh, and afterwards entered the service of several native chiefs, until in 1777 he entered the service of Mirza Najf-Khán, the general and minister of Sháh Alam II., and received the *pargand* of Sardhána in fief, as an assignment for the support of his battalions. He died here in the following year, and was succeeded by his widow, the well-known Begam Samru, who continued to keep the military force. This remarkable woman, the illegitimate daughter of a Musalmán of Arab descent, and the mistress of Reinhard before becoming his wife, assumed the entire management of the estate, and the personal command of the troops, which numbered 5 battalions of sepoys, about 300 European officers and gunners, with 50 pieces of cannon, and a body of irregular horse. In 1781 the Begam was baptized into the Roman Catholic Church, under the name of Johanna. Her troops rendered excellent service to the emperor in the battle of Gokalgarrh in 1788, where a charge of Sardhána troops, personally led by the Begam and the celebrated adventurer George Thomas, saved the fortunes of the day at a critical moment. In 1792, the Begam married Levassoult, a Frenchman in command of her artillery. In 1795, her European officers became disaffected, and an illegitimate son of Reinhard, known as Zafaryáb Khán, put himself at their head. The Begam and her husband were forced to fly. In the flight the Begam's palanquin was overtaken by the rebels, and she stabbed herself to save herself from falling into their hands; and thereupon Levassoult shot himself, in pursuance of a vow that if one of them was killed the other would commit suicide. The Begam's wound, however, was but a slight one, and she was brought back to Sardhána. Another account of this incident is that the Begam had become tired of her husband, and that it was all a plot on her own part to get rid of him. However, all her power passed temporarily into the hands of Zafaryáb Khán, and she was treated with great personal indignity, till she was restored to power some months later by her old general George Thomas, and remained in undisturbed possession of her estates till her death in 1836.

After the battle of Delhi, and the British conquest of the Upper Doáb, the Begam submitted to the new rulers, and ever after remained distinguished for her loyalty. Her possessions were numerous, and included several considerable towns, such as Sardhána, Baraut, Barnáwa, and Dankaur, besides lying in the immediate neighbourhood of great marts like Meerut, Delhi, Khúrja, and Bágpát. Her income from her estates in Meerut District alone amounted to £56,721 per annum. She kept

up a considerable army, and had places of residence at Khirwa, Jalál-pur, Meerut, and Delhi, besides her palace at Sardhána. She endowed with large sums the Catholic churches of Madras, Calcutta, Agra, and Bombay, the Sardhána Cathedral, the Sardhána poorhouse, St. John's Roman Catholic College, and the Meerut Catholic Chapel. She also made over a *lakh* of Sonat rupees to the Bishop of Calcutta for charitable purposes, and subscribed liberally to Hindu and Musalmán institutions. Zafaryáb Khán, the son of Samru, died in 1802, and left one daughter, whom the Begam married to Mr. Dyce, an officer in her service. David Ochterlony Dyce Sombre, the issue of this marriage, died in Paris, July 1851, and the Sardhána estates passed to his widow, the Hon. Mary Anne Forester, daughter of Viscount St. Vincent. The Begam's residence, on the east side of the town, is a fine modern house, with a grand flight of steps at the entrance and extensive grounds. It is well furnished, and contains some good pictures. The Roman Catholic Cathedral, built in 1822, stands south of the town, and is an imposing building, surrounded by an ornamental wall. St. John's College, for training priests, occupies a low masonry house, once the Begam's private residence. Two excellent papers on the Sardhána estate, and a biography of George Thomas, in the *Calcutta Review* for January and April 1880, by Mr. H. G. Keane, B.C.S., differ in some unimportant degrees from the history of the estate as given above. Four Jain temples. Schools. *Tahsili*, police station, post office. Old fort at Lashkarganj in ruins. Insufficient drainage causes malarious fevers, but local funds are being applied to remedy this evil. Essentially an agricultural town, with little trade and no manufactures.

Sareni.—*Parganá* of Rái Bareli District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Khiron, on the east by Dálmau, on the south by the Ganges, and on the west by Daundia Khera. Area, 114 square miles, of which 61 are cultivated. Pop. (1869), 60,825, namely, 59,471 Hindus and 1354 Muhammadans. Of the 169 villages comprising the *parganá*, 157 are held under *talukdári* tenure, Bais Kshattriyas being the chief proprietary body. Government land revenue, £19,100, equal to an average of 5s. 2½d. per acre.

Sargúja.—The largest of the Native States of Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal; lies between 22° 37' 30" and 24° 6' 30" N. lat., and between 82° 32' 5" and 84° 7' E. long. Area, 6103 square miles; population in 1872, 182,831. Bounded on the north by Mirzápur, a District of the North-Western Provinces, and the State of Rewah; on the east by Lohárdagá District; on the south by Jashpur, Udáipur, and the District of Biláspur in the Central Provinces; and on the west by Koreá.

Physical Aspects.—Sargúja may be described in general terms as a secluded basin, walled in on the north-east and south by massive hill-barriers, and protected from approach on the west by the forest-

clad tract of Koreá. The eastern portion of the State consists of an undulating tableland about 2500 feet above the sea, continuous with, but slightly higher than, the adjoining plateau of Chutiá Nágpur proper. From this again isolated hill ranges, and *páts* or plateaux, capped with a horizontal stratum of trap rock, rise to an elevation of 3500 and 4000 feet, forming on the north the boundary of Palámau, and blending in the south with the northern Jashpur Hills. The two most prominent physical features of Sargúja are the Máinpát, a magnificent tableland 18 miles long, from 6 to 8 broad, and 3781 feet above sea level; and the Jamrápát, a long winding ridge about 2 miles wide. The Máinpát is well wooded and watered throughout, and supplies extensive grazing fields during the summer months; the pasturage dues of this tract alone are estimated at £250 per annum. The chief peaks in the State are Mailán, 4024 feet; Jám, 3827; and Partagharsa, 3804. The principal rivers are the Kanhar, Rehr, and Máhán, which flow northwards into the Són; and the Sankh, a tributary of the Bráhmañí. None of these streams is navigable. Coal is found in Central Sargúja, in the BISRAMPUR field. There is a group of hot springs at Tatápání, in the north of the State; their maximum temperature is 184° F. *Sál* timber abounds everywhere.

History.—The early history of Sargúja is extremely obscure. Authentic records date from 1758, when a Marhattá army in progress to the Ganges overran the State, and compelled its chief to acknowledge himself a tributary of the Berar Government. In consequence of the chief having aided a rebellion in Palámau against the British at the end of the last century, an expedition entered Sargúja under the command of Colonel Jones. Order was restored, and a treaty was concluded between the British Government and the Maharájá of Chutiá Nágpur, which, however, proved inoperative. As soon as the British force retired, fresh disputes broke out between the ruling chief and his relations; and in 1813, Major Roughsedge, the Political Agent, went to Sargúja and endeavoured to settle the affairs of the State. The young Rájá being imbecile, a *diwán* was appointed to carry on the government; but this officer was soon afterwards killed, and an attempt to seize the Rájá and his two Ránís was only frustrated by the gallantry of a small guard of British Sepoys who had been left in Sargúja for their protection. Until 1818, the State continued to be the scene of constant lawlessness; but in that year it was ceded to the British Government under a provisional agreement concluded with Madhoji Bhonslá (Apá Sáhib), and order was soon restored. In 1826, the chief received the title of Maharájá.

Population.—The population of 182,831 persons (1872), inhabiting 1295 villages and 36,463 houses, consisted of 91,291 males and 91,540 females; proportion of males in total population, 49·9 per cent.

The Dravidian aborigines (of whom the Gonds and Uráons form by far the most numerous section of the population) numbered 73,256, or 40·1 per cent.; the Kolarian tribes, 39,416, or 21·5 per cent.; Hindus, 68,789, or 37·6 per cent.; Muhammadans, 1370, or 0·8 per cent. of the total population. Average density of population, 30 per square mile; villages per square mile, 0·21; persons per village, 141; houses per square mile, 6; persons per house, 5. The residence of the Maharájá is at Bistrámpur; but the manager lives at Pratáppur farther north, which village is virtually the capital of the State. It contains a court-house, jail, and school. Only two villages in Sargúja have a population of from 1000 to 2000 souls. The chief objects of interest are RAMGARH HILL, the remains of several temples, the deserted fortress of Júbá, and numerous images. (For a full account of these antiquities and of the aboriginal tribes of Sargúja, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xvii. pp. 231-240).

Agriculture, etc.—The staple crops are cereals, oil-seeds, and cotton. On an average, the rent varies from 1s. 1½d. to 1s. 6d. per acre. Cesses, however, are levied, which equal, and sometimes exceed, the actual rent; and every cultivator is bound to work for his landlord fifteen days in the year, exclusive of the time spent in going to the work. This system of forced labour is at present the chief drawback to cultivation in Sargúja. The passes into the State are impracticable for wheeled traffic. The manufactures are pottery, coarse cloth, and rough ironwork. Weekly markets are held at Pratáppur, Bistrámpur, and Jhilmili. Exports—food grains, oil-seeds, *ghi*, lac, resin, and cocoons of *tasar* silk; imports—brass and pewter vessels, ornaments, piece-goods, and salt.

Administration.—The State yields its Rájá an annual income of about £3000, and pays a tribute to Government of £189, 3s. 4d. In 1877-78, when Sargúja was under the supervision of the Commissioner of the Chutiá Nágpur Division, the actual revenue was ascertained to be £3199, and the expenditure £2565. Police duties are performed by the principal feudal sub-proprietors, styled *nákaddárs*, each being responsible for the public peace within his borders. Sargúja is divided into 11 police circles, three of which are kept up by the State.

Sargúr.—Town in Mysore District, Mysore.—See SARAGUR.

Sarh Sálímpur.—Easternmost *tahsil* of Cawnpore District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a fertile plain, lying along the south bank of the Ganges, and traversed by the East Indian Railway. Area, 208 square miles, of which 129 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 99,303; land revenue, £23,598; total Government revenue, £25,958; rental paid by cultivators, £37,065.

Sarila.—One of the petty States of Bundelkhand under the political superintendence of the Bundelkhand Agency and the Central India Agency. It lies within *parganá* Jalálpur of Hamárpur District, and is

surrounded on all sides by British territory. Area, 35 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 6000; estimated revenue, £3000. On the division of his estates by Pahar Sinh, son of Jagatrāj, Rājā of Jaitpur, Mán Sinh, his second son, obtained Sarila. His successor, Tej Sinh, was expelled by Alī Bahádur, but eventually recovered a portion of his territories through the assistance of Himmat Bahádur. At the time of the British occupation of Bundelkhand, he was in possession of the fort and village of Sarila. In consideration of his voluntary submission and influence in the District, he was granted 11 villages by *sanad* in 1807. The present (1876) chief is Rājā Khalak Sinh, during whose minority the State is managed by his mother. The military force of the State consists of 4 guns, 40 cavalry, and 200 infantry and police.

Sarishpur (or *Siddheswar*).—Hill range in the south of Assam, forming the boundary between Cáchár District on the east and Sylhet on the west. The height varies from 600 to 2000 feet above sea level.

Sarjápúr.—Municipal village in Bangalore District, Mysore. Lat. 12° 52' N., long. 77° 49' 5" E.; pop. (1871), 3051; municipal revenue (1874-75), £18; rate of taxation, 1½d. per head. Considerable manufacture of cotton cloth, carpets, and tape. Muslins of fine quality are no longer made. Weekly fair on Fridays.

Sarju.—River in the North-Western Provinces.—See GOGRA.

Sarmastipur.—Trading village in Darbhanga District, Bengal.—See SOMASTIPUR.

Sárnáth (probably a corruption of Sárangganáth, 'Lord of Deer,' referring to a legend of Buddha).—Buddhist ruins in Benares District, North-Western Provinces, distant 3½ miles north of BENARES city; Sakya Muni first preached his doctrines here, and some of the ruins probably date from his time (543 B.C.). The remains form a mound of brick and stone *díbris* about half a mile long by a quarter of a mile broad, out of which still emerge the remains of two great *stupas*, and a third is in the vicinity. The most remarkable, specially known as the Dhamek, is a solid dome 93 feet in diameter, and 110 feet above the plain. The plinth, 43 feet high, is of solid stone cramped with iron, and richly sculptured on the exterior. The upper part consists of dilapidated brickwork. The second *stupa* was excavated for bricks in 1794. The third, now called Chaukandi, is 800 yards south of Dhamek, and consists of a lofty ruined mound of brickwork, 74 feet in height, crowned by an octagonal building, commemorating the Emperor Humayún's visit in 1531. The remains of many other buildings have been excavated in the vicinity. The Dhamek tower probably is, if not the same, on the site of that erected by Asoka to mark the spot where Buddha first preached his doctrine. The name is a corrupt form of Dharma, 'The Law.' Both Dhamek and Chaukandi *stupas* appear to be mentioned by Hiouen Thsang. See also General Cunningham's *Anc. Geog. Ind.* pp. 437-438 (ed. 1871).

Saromannagar.—*Parganá* in Hardoi District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Sháhábád; on the east by Báwan; on the south-east and south by the Sukheta river, which separates it from Barwán; and on the west by the Gara river, separating it from Páli *parganá*. Area, 35 square miles, of which 21 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 15,624, namely, 15,331 Hindus and 293 Muhammadans. Government land revenue, £2229, equal to an average of 3s. 3½d. per acre of cultivated area, or 1s. 11¼d. per acre of total area. Of the 42 villages comprising the *parganá*, 20 are held by Sombansís, and 15 by Chamár Gaurs. Thirty villages are held in imperfect *pattidári* and 12 in *zamindári* tenure. The country was originally occupied by Thatheras, who were driven out of many of their villages by Gaur Rájputs in the middle of the 12th century; and their total expulsion by the Sombansís occurred shortly afterwards. The *parganá* was first constituted in 1803 by Rájá Bhawání Parshád of Muhamdi, out of villages previously belonging to the neighbouring *parganá*s of Páli and Sára.

Saromannagar.—Town in Hardoi District, and headquarters of Saromannagar *parganá*; situated 6 miles south of Sháhábád, and 15 miles north-west of Hardoi town. Pop. (1869), 1452, namely, 1303 Hindus and 149 Muhammadans. Village school. Bi-weekly market.

Sarsa.—Town in Kaira District, Bombay; situated 28 miles east by south of Kaira town, in lat. 22° 33' N., and long. 73° 7' E. Pop. (1872), 5218.

Sarsaganj.—Trading village in Máinpuri District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 27° 3' N., long. 78° 43' 50" E.; pop. in 1872 (including Sarsa), 5496. Lies on the Etáwah road, 6 miles north of Bhadan station, East Indian Railway, and 27 miles south-west of Máinpuri town. The village of Sarsa (pop. 3922) is a mere agricultural hamlet, containing a large fortified brick house, belonging to a family of Kirár Thákurs; but the real importance of the place centres in the neighbouring *bázár* of Sarsaganj, the principal trading market of the District, and the only one which carries on business with surrounding towns. Fine market-place, known as Raikes-ganj; bi-weekly fair; large trade in cotton. Wealthy merchants, chiefly Jains; several Jain temples; very handsome little mosque of peculiar architecture. Large cattle market. Police station, post office, village school. House tax in 1873-74 yielded a revenue of £86.

Sarsáwa.—Ancient town in Saháranpur District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 3433. Distant from Saháranpur town 10 miles west, upon the Ambála (Umballa) road. Small trade to and from the Punjab. Chiefly remarkable for its historical associations, being identified by General Cunningham with Sharwa or Sharasháraha, the city of Rájá Chand, sacked by Mahmúd of Ghazní in 1019 A.D. The Rájá fled to the hills after the fall of his fort; but Mahmúd followed up the

fugitives, defeated them in the midst of a forest, and captured an enormous booty in gold, silver, precious stones, and slaves. Police station, post office, village school.

Sarsutí.—River in the North-Western Provinces, Punjab.—*See* SARASWATI.

Sáru.—The loftiest hill in Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal; situated in Lohárdagá District, west of Ráncí town; 3615 feet in height. Lat. 23° 30' N., long. 84° 30' 45" E.

Sarvepalli.—Town in Nellore District, Madras. Lat. 14° 17' 30" N., long. 80° 0' 40" E.; pop. (1871), 5101, inhabiting 912 houses. Sarvepalli contains the ruins of an old Rohillá fort and a fine stone tank.

Sarwán.—Village in Unao District, Oudh; situated in lat. 26° 36' N., and long. 80° 56' E., 6 miles north-east of Purwá, and 26 miles east of Unao town. Pop. (1869), 2183, viz. 2067 Hindus and 116 Musalmáns. A very ancient village, with a noted Sivaite temple. Concerning this temple, Mr. C. A. Elliott narrates the following tradition in his *Chronicles of Unao*, pp. 5, 6:—‘To worship at this temple, and to shoot and hunt in the wild forest country around, came Rájá Dasaratha from Ajodhya, the father of Rámchandra, the 57th Rájá of Ajodhya. He was encamped at Sarwára on the edge of a tank. By night came Sarwán, a holy Rishi from Chaunsa (near Ajodhya), by caste a Bania. He was going on pilgrimage, and was carrying his blind father and mother in a pair of baskets, slung over his shoulders. Reaching the tank, he put his burden down and stopped to drink. Rájá Dasaratha heard a rustling noise, and thinking it was some wild beast, took up his bow and shot an arrow, which struck Sarwán, and he died. Then his blind parents in their misery lifted up their voices and cursed the man who had done the thing. They prayed that as he had slain the son who was the light of their hearts, so he might have trouble and sorrow from his own children, and might die of grief even as they were dying. Having so said, they gave up the ghost; and from that day to this no Kshattriya has lived in the town which is founded on the spot, and is called Sarwán. Many have tried it, but evil has overtaken them in one way or another. The tank remains to this day, and by it lies under a tree the body of Sarwán, a figure of stone; and as he died with his thirst unquenched, so if water is poured into the navel of the figure, the hole can never be filled up, but is inexhaustible in its demand.’

Saryá.—Indigo factory in Muzaffarpur District, Bengal; situated 18 miles south-west of Muzaffarpur town, on the banks of the Bayá river, which is here crossed by the Chhaprá road on a fine three-arched bridge. A short distance from Saryá is a monolith called Bhím Sinh's *lákhi* or club, supporting a lion carved in stone. It consists of a plain cylinder about 24 feet high, on the top of which is a pedestal with the lion. The cylinder is in one piece, the height of the whole being about 30 feet.

Its depth below ground is unknown, but it must be very great, as some persons once dug down several feet, and failed to reach the foundation. The stone is covered with names, many of them English, some of which date from 1793. It stands in the courtyard of a Bráhmán's house, but no religious meetings take place here. Close at hand is a well or deep excavation; and the Bráhmán who owns the land on which the monolith stands affirms that a large amount of treasure is believed to lie concealed beneath, and that this excavation was made to try and recover it.

Sáni (*Sásani*).—Town in Aligarh District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. $27^{\circ} 42' 12''$ N., long. $78^{\circ} 8' 5''$ E.; pop. (1802), 4208. Distant from Aligarh town 14 miles south on the Agra road, from Háthras 7 miles north. Steadily declining in importance. Remains of ancient fort, which held out under its rebel chief against Lord Lake in 1803, when it was captured not without considerable loss. Monuments in memory of the officers killed in the attack. Indigo factories, built from the materials of the fort. Police station, post office, encamping ground for troops.

Sásserám.—Subdivision of Sháhábád District, Bengal, lying between $24^{\circ} 31'$ and $25^{\circ} 22' 30''$ N. lat., and between $83^{\circ} 33'$ and $84^{\circ} 30'$ E. long. Area, 1757 square miles; villages, 1668; houses, 65,981. Pop. (1872), 443,703, of whom 404,933, or 91·3 per cent., were Hindus; 38,567, or 8·7 per cent., Muhammadans; 134 Christians; and 69 of other religions. Proportion of males in total population, 49·4 per cent.; persons per square mile, 253; villages per square mile, 0·95; persons per village, 266; houses per square mile, 38; persons per house, 6·7. This Subdivision consists of the 3 police circles of Dhangáo, Nokhá, and Sásserám. In 1870-71, it contained 3 magisterial and revenue courts, a regular police force of 176, and a village watch of 2115 men; the cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £6671.

Sásserám.—Headquarters town of Sásserám Subdivision, Sháhábád District, Bengal; situated on the Grand Trunk Road, 60 miles south of Arrah, in lat. $24^{\circ} 56' 59''$ N., and long. $84^{\circ} 3' 7''$ E. Pop. (1872), 21,023. Municipal revenue, £942, 6s.; rate of taxation, 10½d. per head of population. The name Sásserám or Sahsrám signifies one thousand toys, because a certain Asur or infidel who lived here had a thousand arms, each holding a separate plaything. The town, now fast declining in importance, is noted as containing the tomb of the Afghán Sher Sháh, who conquered Humáyun, and subsequently became Emperor of Delhi. His mausoleum is at the west end of the town, within a large tank, the excavated earth of which has been thrown into unshapely banks some distance off. The tomb itself consists of an octagonal hall surrounded by an arcade, which forms a gallery; the roof is supported by four gothic arches; the ornaments are in the very worst taste. (For full details respecting this monument, see *Statistical Account*.)

of Bengal, vol. xii. pp. 205-208.) In 1872-73, the imports of Sásserám were returned at £19,855, the exports at £6660.

Sásu.—River in the south of Lakhimpur District, Assam, which rises in a marsh near the village of Bájaltali, and flowing south-west in a very circuitous course, empties itself into the Burí Dihing near its junction with the Brahmaputra. During the rainy season, the Sásu is navigable by canoes for about 200 miles.

Sáswad (*Sasar*). — Chief town of the Purandhar Subdivision of Poona (Púna) District, Bombay ; situated on the left bank of the river Kárha 16 miles south-east of Poona city, in lat. $18^{\circ} 20' 20''$ N., and long. $74^{\circ} 4' 20''$ E. Pop. (1872), 6414. Sáswad is a municipal town, with an annual income of £280. Post office and dispensary. Beyond the town, and across the river Kárha, there is an old palace of the Peshwá, now used for the Collector's office. Near the junction of the Kárha and one of its minor tributaries, is a walled building, the palace of the great Bráhmaṇ family Purandhare of Purandhar, whose fortunes for upwards of a century were so closely connected with those of the Peshwás. This latter palace was formerly strongly fortified, and in 1818 was garrisoned and held out for ten days against a detachment of British troops.

Sata.—Channel of the Indus in Sind. The most important eastern branch of the river, that to the west being known as the BAGHAR. The Sata sends off, on the left or eastern side, two branches, the Mal and the Matni, both of which are now only shallow streams. Before the great earthquake that occurred in Cutch (Kachchh) in 1819, vessels from seaward entered the Richal mouth, the only accessible entrance, and passed into the Hajámro through what was then the Khedewári creek, and thence into the Mal to Sháhbandar, an important naval station under the Kalhora princes. This passage was closed by the earthquake, and a new mouth opened, viz. the Kukaiwári, which in 1867 was found to be completely choked by sand. The Khedewári was described by Lieutenant Carless in 1837 as having a depth of from 16 to 18 feet, but since 1845 the Hajámro had taken its place as the main channel.

Satanones. — One of the petty States in Undsarviya, Káthiáwár, Bombay ; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £95 ; of which £10 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and 12s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Satanwári.—Fort in Bhopál State, Central India ; situated in lat. $23^{\circ} 36'$ N., and long. $77^{\circ} 10'$ E., 30 miles north-west of Bhopál town, close to the Gwalior frontier. Satanwári appears, says Thornton, to have been granted with other possessions in 1818 by the British Government to the Nawáb of Bhopál, 'in order to mark its approbation of his conduct, and to enable him to maintain the stipulated contingent.'

Sátára.—A British District in the Deccan Division of the Bombay

Presidency, lying between $16^{\circ} 51'$ and $18^{\circ} 10' 30''$ N. lat., and between $73^{\circ} 37'$ and $74^{\circ} 58'$ E. long. Area, according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1879, 5378 square miles; population in 1872, 1,116,050. It is bounded on the north by the States of Bhör and Phaltan, and the Níra river separating it from Poona; on the east by Sholápur District and the estates of the Panth Pratinidhi and the chief of Ját; on the south by the river Várna, separating it from Kolhápur and Sängli States, and by a few villages of Belgáum District; and on the west by the Sahyádri range of hills, separating it from the Konkan Districts of Kolába and Ratnágiri. The administrative headquarters are at SATARA TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—From Mahábaleshwar in the north-west corner of the District, 4717 feet above the sea, start two hill ranges of equal height and nearly at right angles to each other—one the main range of the Sahyádri, running towards the south and forming the western boundary of the District, and the other the Mahádeo range of hills, which, going first in an easterly and then in a south-easterly direction, extends towards the eastern boundary, where it sinks gradually into the plain. These hills throw out numerous spurs over the District, forming the valleys of the several streams which make up the head-waters of the Kistna, one of the largest rivers in Western India. Except near Mahábaleshwar, and in the valley of the Koina, the hills of the District are very low, and have a strikingly bare and rugged aspect. The Mahádeo range, even in the rainy season, is but scantily covered with verdure. The hills are bold and abrupt, presenting in many cases bare scarps of black rock, and looking at a distance like so many hill fortresses. They consist of trap, intersected by strata of basalt and topped with laterite. Of the different soils on the plains, the commonest is the black loamy clay containing carbonate of lime. This is a very fertile soil, and when well watered is capable of yielding heavy crops. Red clay is found near the foot of the hills. Besides many soils of a light and dark brown colour, white nodules of pure lime, and also light brown loam with a large proportion of lime, are often met with in the east. The water supply, especially in the western parts, is tolerably plentiful; but in the east, during the hot weather, there is great scarcity. The supply comes partly from rivers and partly from numerous ponds and wells. Almost all the rivers rising near Mahábaleshwar on the Sahyádri range, or in the Mahádeo Hills, flow directly or indirectly into the Kistna. Some of these hold water only for a short time after the rains; but by throwing temporary dams across them and leading their water into canals, they are much utilized for irrigation. During the hot season, most of the ponds and wells become dry. The city of SATARA receives its supply through pipes from a reservoir on the Enteshwar Hill, built by Rájá Pratáp Sinh. Scarcity of water is, how-

ever, felt in the city during the hot season, and steps are being taken to increase the supply by improving some of the reservoirs. Irrigation works are in progress on the Kistna near Karád, on the Yerla at Khatgáon, on the Nira near Málshiras, and on the Mán. At Karád, the irrigation dam has been completed, and a channel cut 32 miles in length on the left bank of the river.

Iron and copper ore, found in abundance on the Mahábaleshwar and Mahádeo Hills, were formerly worked by the Musalmán tribe of Dhávdás. Owing, however, to the fall in the value of iron and the rise in the price of fuel, smelting is now no longer carried on.

The forests of the western Subdivisions have a large store of timber and firewood. *Júmbul* (*Syzygium jambolanum*), *gela* (*Vangueria spinosa*), and *pesha* (*Cylicodaphne wightiana*) grow on the main ridge of the Sahyádris, and small teak on the eastern slopes. Sandal-wood is occasionally found, and the mango, jack, and guava are often grown for their fruit. Patches of bamboo sometimes occur. The cinchona plantation, established in Lingmala near Mahábaleshwar, has proved a failure.

Of wild animals, tigers, bears, hyænas, bison, wild boar, and *sámbar* deer are found only in the western hills, and hares and jackals throughout the District. The once famous breed of horses in the Nira valley has degenerated, and Government efforts to improve it have so far met with little success.

Population.—The Census returns of 1872 showed a total population of 1,116,050 persons living in 1428 towns and villages and in 142,687 houses. Density of population on Census area, 207·52 per square mile; square miles per village, 3·80; houses per square mile, 32·08; persons per village, 781·76; and persons per house, 6·47. Classified according to sex, there were 567,398 males and 548,652 females; proportion of males, 50·84 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 203,950, and females, 182,967; total children, 386,917, or 34·66 per cent. Classified according to religion, 1,078,480, or 96·63 per cent., were Hindus; 36,872, or 3·30 per cent., Musalmáns; 84 Pársis; 600 Christians; and 14 ‘others.’ Of the Hindus, who form the great majority of the population, about two-thirds consist of Marhattás and Kumbís, who during the period of Marhattá ascendancy (1674-1817) furnished the bulk of the armies. The Mávlás, Sivaji’s best soldiers, were drawn from the *ghátmátha* (hill-top) portion of the District. During the last half-century, they have become quiet and orderly, living almost entirely by agriculture. Dark skinned and, as a rule, small, they are active and capable of enduring much fatigue. Bráhmans, employed as priests or Government servants, are found in large numbers in the towns of Sátara and Wái. Besides these, Vánis, Dhangars, Rámosis, Mhárs, and Mángs are among the principal castes met with throughout the District.

History.—The history of Sátara is the subject of an excellent monograph by Mr. W. W. Loch, of the Bombay Civil Service, and can only be summarized very briefly here. Early in the Christian era, Sátara formed part of the dominions of the great Saliváhana, whose capital was at Paitan on the Godávári river. The Chálukya Rájputs next ruled the country, rising to their greatest power in the 10th century, and becoming extinct at the end of the 12th. The Jádhav Rájás of Daulatábád succeeded them for about a hundred years. The first Muhammadan invasion took place in 1294, and the Jádhav dynasty was overthrown in 1312. The Muhammadan power was then fairly established, and in 1345 the Báhmání dynasty rose to power. On the fall of the Báhmanis towards the end of the 15th century, each chief set up for himself; the Bijápur kings finally asserted themselves; and under the Bijápur kings the Marhattás arose. Sátara, with the adjacent Districts of Poona and Sholápur, formed the centre of the Marhattá power. The history of that power belongs to the general annals of India. Its founder, Sivají, commenced his career as a free-lance about the year 1644; and during the rest of the century, his family rapidly aggrandized itself at the expense both of the Bijápur King and of the Delhi Emperor. The general decay of the Mughal Empire from 1700 to 1750 opened the way for the Marhattá supremacy. The Peshwás, or Mayors of the Palace, date their power from Balají, about 1718. In 1749, the sovereignty passed from the Sátara Rájás to the Bráhman Peshwás, with their headquarters in the adjoining District of Poona. The descendants of Sivají became little more than pensioned prisoners, but they clung to the title of Rájá of Sátara. The battle of Pánipat in 1761 broke the power of the Peshwás and the great Marhattá confederacy. But the Peshwá still remained the most important native ruler in India till the rise of Haidar Ali. Repeated wars with the English ended in the final defeat of the Peshwá's army at Ashti in 1818. His territory was thereupon annexed; but the English, with a politic generosity, freed the titular Marhattá Rájá (the descendant of Sivají) from the Peshwá's control, and assigned to him the principality of Sátara. Captain Grant Duff was appointed his tutor until he should gain some experience in rule. In April 1822, the Sátara territory was formally handed over to the Rájá, and thenceforward was managed by him entirely. After a time, he became impatient of the control exercised by the British Government; and as he persisted in intriguing and holding communications with other princes, in contravention of his treaty, he was deposed in 1839, and sent as a State prisoner to Benares, and his brother Sháhjí was placed on the throne. This prince, who did much for the improvement of his people, died in 1848 without male heirs; and after long deliberation, it was decided that the State should be resumed by the British Government. Liberal pensions were granted to the

Rájá's three widows, and they were allowed to live in the palace at Sátara. The survivor of these ladies died in 1874. . .

Agriculture.—Agriculture, the main occupation of the people, supports 934,186 persons, or 83 per cent. of the entire population. The black soil, especially along the valley of the Kistna and its tributaries, is very fertile, yielding two crops a year. *Joár* (*Sorghum vulgare*) and *bájra* (*Penicillaria spicata*), the staple food of the people, occupy nearly half the cultivated area. Rice-fields are found only in the west, along river banks. In the south and east, cotton (*Gossypium herbaceum*) is grown, most of it of a local variety, but some brought from Hinganghát. Near Mahábaleshwar, several European vegetables, especially potatoes, grow freely, and to a great extent supply the Bombay market. In some of the hill villages, which have a heavy rainfall, *nachni* (*Eleusine corocana*) and *rari* (*Panicum miliare*) are raised on the *kumári* system, that is, by cutting down and burning brushwood and sowing the seeds in the ashes. This practice, formerly general, has, on account of the damage it does to the forests, been to a large extent prohibited.

In 1877, 1,066,079 acres were under cultivation, of which 33,821 were twice cropped, and thus affect the percentages. Grain crops, consisting chiefly of *joár* and *bájra*, occupied 893,851 acres, or 81·27 per cent. of the cultivated area; pulses, 107,596 acres, or 9·87 per cent.; oil-seeds, 42,976 acres, or 3·90 per cent.; and miscellaneous crops occupied the remainder.

In March 1877, *joár*, the staple grain, sold at the rate of 22 lbs. the rupee (10s. 2d. per cwt.). At the same time, the daily wage of unskilled labour varied from 2½d. to 6d. (1½ to 4 annas).

Commerce and Manufactures.—Besides *kambli*s (blankets) and coarse cotton cloth, the chief exports of the District are grain, tobacco, oil-seeds, chillies, molasses, and a little raw cotton. The imports are—European piece-goods, hardware, paper, dried fruits, refined sugar, and salt. Weekly or bi-weekly markets are held in large villages and towns. Of these, Mhasvad is famous for its blankets, and Belandi for its cattle. Cotton is spun by women of the Kumbi, Mhár, and Máng castes. The yarn thus prepared is made up by Hindu weavers of the Sáli or Koshti caste, and by Musalmáns, into cloth, tape, and ropes. Blankets (*kambli*s), which command a large sale, are woven by men of the Sangar caste. Sátara brass dishes and Shirol lamps are well known throughout the District. Notwithstanding the great number of carpenters, wheels and axles for cart-making have to be brought from Chiplún in Ratnágiri. Paper from rags is still manufactured to some extent.

Means of Communication.—Of the several lines of road in the District, extending over a total length of 288 miles, the Poona and Belgáum road, crossing the District from north to south and bridged and metalled throughout, is the most important. One branch of this

line breaks off at Karád, and runs along the valley of the Koina to Chiplún; while two other branches from Surúl and Sátára, passing by the town of Wái, go in the direction of Mahábaleshwar and then towards Mahád, a Konkan seaport. The old Poona road by the Salpa Pass is now almost abandoned. Of the other lines that cross the District from east to west, the chief are the Pandharpur road and the two Tásgáon lines, one from Sátára and one from Karád. Along these and the Belgáum line, a large bullock-cart traffic passes. Within the limits of the District, the Sahyádrí Hills are crossed by thirteen roads or bullock tracks, of which the principal are the Kamatgi, Pasarni, Kumbhárlí, Varándha, and Fitzgerald. Besides houses for the use of District officers when on tour, village offices, *cháudis*, and temples, there are 243 *dharmstálas* or rest-houses for the accommodation of travellers.

Administration.—The total revenue raised in 1877 under all heads, imperial, local, and municipal, amounted to £237,092, showing on a population of 1,116,050 an incidence of 4s. 6d. per head. The land tax forms the principal source of revenue, amounting to £181,875, or 76 per cent. of the total amount. The other chief items are stamps, excise, forest, and local funds. The District local funds, created since 1863 for works of public utility and rural education, yielded £11,900. There are 13 municipalities, containing an aggregate population of 103,052 persons. Their aggregate receipts amounted in 1877-78 to £6992, and the average incidence of taxation was about 2d. per head.

The administration of the District in revenue matters is, exclusive of the Superintendent of Malcolmpet, entrusted to a Collector and 6 Assistant Collectors, four of whom are covenanted civilians. For the settlement of civil disputes, there are 8 courts. The number of suits decided in 1874 amounted to 12,333. Thirty-nine officers share the administration of criminal justice. The total strength of the regular police force consisted in 1877 of 190 officers and 797 constables, giving 1 policeman to every 1073 persons of the population. The total cost was £13,040, equal to £2, 12s. per square mile of area and 2½d. per head of population. The number of convicted persons was 5245, being 1 person to every 214 of the population. There is one jail in the District. Compared with 114 schools and 1168 pupils in 1865, there were in 1877, 219 schools with a roll-call of 10,435 names, or, on an average, 1 school for every 6 villages. Three vernacular papers were published in Sátára District in 1877-78.

Medical Aspects.—According to the height and distance from the sea, the climate varies in different parts of the District. In the east, especially in the months of April and May, the heat is considerable. But near the Gháts it is much more moderate, being tempered by the sea-breeze. Again, while few parts of Western India have a heavier and more con-

tinuous rainfall than the western slope of the Sahyádrí Hills, in some of the eastern Subdivisions the supply is very scanty. The average annual rainfall at Mahábaleshwar is more than 200 inches, while in Sátára town it is only 40 inches, and in some places farther east it is less than 12. The west of the District draws almost its whole rain supply from the south-west monsoon, between June and October. Some of the eastern Subdivisions have, however, a share in the north-east monsoon, and rain falls there in November and December. The May or 'mango showers,' as they are called, also influence the cultivator's prospects.

Seven dispensaries and 2 civil hospitals, one at Sátára and the other at Malcolmpet, afforded medical relief to 942 in-door and 33,887 out-door patients in 1877-78, and 31,176 persons were vaccinated. Vital statistics showed a death-rate of 22·4 per thousand in 1876-77.

Sátára.—Chief town and headquarters of Sátára District, Bombay; situated in lat. 17° 41' 25" N., and long. 74° 2' 10" E., 56 miles south of Poona, near the confluence of the Kistna and the Yenæ, in the highlands of the Deccan, where the country generally inclines towards the east. The strong fort of Sátára, midway between the Kistna and the Torna-gát, is perched on the summit of a small, steep, rocky hill. It takes its name from the seventeen walls, towers, and gates which it possessed, or is supposed to have possessed. At the close of the war with the Peshwá, in 1818, it fell, after a short resistance, into the hands of the British, who restored it with the adjacent territory to the representative of Sivaji's line, who, during the Peshwá's ascendancy, had lived there as a State prisoner under the name of the Rájá of Sátára. In 1848, on the death of the last Rájá, the principality reverted to the British. The town of Sátára, lying at the foot of the hill fortress, consisted in 1820 of one long street of tiled houses, built partly of stone and partly of brick. After the breaking up of the Rájá's court, the population considerably decreased. But Sátára is still a large place, with a population, in 1872, of 24,484. Besides the courts of the Subdivisional and District revenue officers, it possesses a District Judge's Court and a High School. The Rájá's palace is plain and commonplace. Sátára has few large or ornamental buildings, but the town is clean and the streets broad. On account of its high position and its exposure to the sea-breeze, the climate is unusually pleasant. The water supply is drawn by pipes from a reservoir on the hill of Enteshwar.

Satásagarh (or '*Sixty Towers*').—Ruin in PANDUAH TOWN, Maldah District, Bengal. See PANDUAH.

Satgaón (or *Saptagrām*, 'The Seven Villages,' so called from seven sages who gave their names to the same number of villages).—Ruined town in Húglí District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 38' 20" N., long. 88° 25' 10" E. The mercantile capital of Bengal from the Puránic age until the founda-

tion of HUGLI by the Portuguese. The decay of this port dates from the silting up of the channel of the SARASWATI, and nothing now remains to indicate its former grandeur except a ruined mosque; the modern village consists of a few miserable huts. Sâtgaón is said to have been one of the resting places of Bhâgîratha. De Barros writes that it was 'less frequented than Chittagong, on account of the port not being so convenient for the entrance and departure of ships.' Purchas states it to be 'a fair citie for a citie of the Moores, and very plentiful, but sometimes subject to Patnaw.' In 1632, when Húgli was declared a royal port, all the public officers were withdrawn from Sâtgaón, which rapidly fell into ruins.—For a full description of the ancient Sâtgaón, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. iii. pp. 307-310.

Sathamba.—State in Mahi Kántha, Bombay.—See SUTHUMBA.

Sáthan.—Town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; pleasantly situated on high ground overlooking the Gumti river, 40 miles north-west of Sultánpur. Founded by Sáthan, a Bhar, and called after him. After the Mutiny of 1857, a certain Sháh Abdul Latif settled here as a 'missionary of pure religion,' and built a mosque, at which hundreds of the Sunni sect assemble every Friday. The 'idgáh of Sáthan is a place of considerable resort for the faithful at the 'Id festival. Pop. (1869), 2253, principally Shaikhs and Sayyids.

Sátkhira.—Subdivision of the Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal, lying between 21° 38' and 22° 56' 45" N. lat., and between 88° 56' 30" and 89° 4' E. long. Area, 713 square miles; villages, 1011; houses, 62,737. Pop. (1872), 423,364, of whom 197,536, or 46·7 per cent., were Hindus; 225,788, or 53·3 per cent., Muhammadans; 16 Christians; and 24 of other religions. Proportion of males in total population, 53·3 per cent.; average number of persons per square mile, 594; villages per square mile, 1·42; persons per village, 419; houses per square mile, 88; inmates per house, 6·8. This Subdivision consists of the 5 police circles of Kalároá, Sátkhirá, Mágurá, Kálrganj, and Asásuni. In 1870-71, it contained 1 magisterial court, a regular police of 170 men, and a rural force 707 strong; the cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £6845, 16s.

Sátkhirá.—Headquarters town of Sátkhirá Subdivision, Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal; situated on the Betná river, in lat. 22° 42' 35" N., and long. 89° 7' 55" E. Pop. (1872), 8979; municipal income, £253, 4s.; rate of taxation, 6½d. per head of population; municipal police, 19 men. The town contains many Hindu temples; a large vernacular school or *pathshála*, entirely supported by the *zamindár*; and a Government dispensary, in charge of a native sub-assistant surgeon. Once a rural village, Sátkhirá is now an important provincial town, a canal having been cut to the Ichámatí river; fair roads lead to the nearest marts of traffic, thus making it an emporium for the sale and

shipment of the produce of the surrounding country. Large trade in sugar and rice.

Satlaj.—One of the five rivers of the Punjab.—*See* SUTLEJ.

Satlásna.—Native State in the Political Agency of Mahi Kántha, Bombay. Pop. (1872), 4951. The principal agricultural products are millet, wheat, Indian corn, and sugar-cane. The present (1876-77) chief is Thákur Hom Sinh, a Hindu of the Parmár Koli tribe. He is thirty years of age, and manages his estate in person. He enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £450; and pays a tribute of £168 to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £73 to the Rájá of Edar. The family of the chief follow the rule of primogeniture in point of succession. There is 1 school in the State, with 43 pupils.

Satodár Wáori.—One of the petty States of Hállár, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 4 villages, with 4 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue (1876), £1200; of which £146 is paid as tribute to the British Government, and £46 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Sátpáti.—Port in Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1873-74 — imports, £852, and exports, £4253.

Sátpura.—Hill range or tableland, which begins at AMARKANTAK and extends westward across the Central Provinces, and beyond them nearly to the western coast. The name was formerly restricted to that portion of the range which divides the Narbadá (Nerbudda) and Tápti valleys; while sometimes the term Vindhyá has been extended to include the Sátpuras, together with the parallel range on the northern side of the Narbadá, in one general appellation for the great chain which stretches across Central India and separates Hindustán proper from the Deccan. Geologically, however, the Vindhyan sandstones are entirely distinct from the Mahádeo and other groups which enter into the composition of the Sátpuras; and geographically, the line of demarcation between the two ranges is defined by the well-marked valley of a great river. Taking Amarkantak as the eastern boundary, the Sátpuras stretch from east to west for about 600 miles, while their greatest breadth from north to south exceeds 100 miles. The range forms a rough triangle. From Amarkantak, 3328 feet above sea level, an outer ridge runs south-west for about 100 miles to the Saletkri Hills in Bhandára District. This ridge, known as the MAIKAL range, constitutes the base of the triangle. Starting from this base, the Sátpura range shrinks, as it proceeds westward, from a broad tableland to two parallel dorsal ridges, bounding on either side the valley of the Tápti. Just east of Asírgarh occurs a break, through which the railway from Bombay and Khándesh to Jabalpur is carried; and ASÍRGARH marks the point where the Sátpuras leave the Central Provinces. Following the range from east to west in Mandla District, the slope is mainly northward towards the Narbadá.

There are four principal upland valleys, each sending down a feeder to that river. The eastern valleys are higher than those to the west. Between the Kharmer and Burhner rivers, the country consists of a rugged mass of bare and lofty mountains hurled together by volcanic action. Their general formation is basaltic, intermixed with laterite, with which the higher peaks are capped. The Chaurádádar plateau, 3300 feet high, has an area of 6 square miles. In Seoní District, the plateaux of Seoní and Lakhnádón are from 1800 to 2220 feet high. The slope of the country is from north to south; and in the lowest watershed, the Waingangá river rises. In Chhindwára, also, the country slopes southwards. The principal upland valleys are those of the Pench and Kolbirá. The general elevation is about 2200 feet, but the plateau of Motúr attains a height of 3500 feet. In Betúl, the slope to the south continues; and the Tápti rises and flows in a deep and narrow gorge. In the south-west corner of the District, the hill of Khámlá rises 3700 feet high. To the north of Betúl, spurs from the Sátpuras occupy a considerable portion of Hoshangábád. Dhúpgarh (4454 feet) is the highest point; and the picturesque plateau of Pachmarhí, 3481 feet above sea level, covers an area of 12 square miles. South of Hoshangábád, sandstone and metamorphic rocks emerge, and form a great portion of the hills of the Betúl and Pachmarhí country. To the east, trap predominates. In Nimár District, the wild and barren range which parts the valleys of the Tápti and the Narbadá has an average width of 15 miles. On its highest point stands the fortress of Asírgarh.

Sátpura.—State forest lying along the southern slopes of the Sátpura Hills, in Seoní, Chhindwára and Nágpur Districts, Central Provinces. Area, about 1000 square miles. *Sáj* forms the chief growth in the eastern, and teak in the western portion. The proximity of Kámthi (Kamptee) and Nágpur has caused the exhaustion of all but young timber; but what remains is now strictly preserved, and plantation experiments have been conducted at Sukáta and Sítájhari.

Satrikh.—*Parganá* in Bára Bánki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Nawábganj and Partábgarh, on the east by Siddhaur, on the south by Haidargarh, and on the west by Dewa. Area, 46 square miles or 29,404 acres, of which 19,318 acres are cultivated; pop. (1869), 24,157, viz. 21,694 Hindus and 2463 Muhammadans. Of the 42 villages comprising the *parganá*, 17 are held in *tálukdárí*, 20 in *zamin-dárí*, and 5 in *pattidárí* tenure. Government land revenue, £4798.

Satrikh.—Town in Bára Bánki District, Oudh, and headquarters of Satrikh *parganá*; situated 5 miles south-east of Bára Bánki town, in lat. 26° 51' 30" N., and long. 81° 14' 10" E. Pop. (1869), 3584, viz. 2177 Hindus and 1407 Muhammadans. The town was originally founded by a Hindu Rájá named Sabtrikh, but was captured by the Muhammadans under Sálár Sahu, a brother-in-law of Mahmúd of

Ghazní. Sálár Sahu died here, and an annual fair is held at his shrine, attended by about 18,000 persons.

Satrunjaya (*Shetrunja*).—Sacred hill near Pálitána in Káthiáwár, Bombay.—See PALITANA TOWN.

Sátúr.—Very old *zamindári* village in Tinneveli District, Madras. Lat. $9^{\circ} 26' N.$, long. $77^{\circ} 31' 20'' E.$; pop. (1871), 7155, inhabiting 1532 houses. A station on the South Indian Railway.

Satyamangalam.—Fortified town in Coimbatore District, Madras. Lat. $11^{\circ} 30' 20'' N.$, long. $77^{\circ} 17' 15'' E.$; pop. (1871), 3412, inhabiting 645 houses. The fort is situated on the Bhavání river, and was built by the Náíks of Madura. It was taken by the Mysore (Maisur) generals in 1657. Owing to its situation commanding the fords at the foot of the Gazzalháthi Pass, Satyamangalam was of considerable strategic importance in our wars with Haidar Alí and Tipú. Colonel Wood took the place in 1768, but Haidar recaptured it the following year. In 1790, Colonel Floyd occupied Satyamangalam, and between the fort and Danayakkankottai fought a severe battle with Tipú in the same year, falling back upon Meadow's column, but effecting his retreat with such skill as almost to convert it into a victory. There are two Ghát roads to the uplands from Satyamangalam—the Gazzalháthi and the Hassanúr roads. The latter is the most frequented route into Mysore.

Saugor.—District, Subdivision, and Town, in the Central Provinces.—See SAGAR.

Saugor.—Island at the mouth of the Húglí river, Bengal. See SAGAR.

Saundatti.—Chief town of the Parasgad Subdivision of Belgáum District, Bombay; situated 41 miles east by south of Belgáum town, in lat. $15^{\circ} 45' 50'' N.$, and long. $75^{\circ} 9' 40'' E.$ Pop. (1872), 8180. About 2 miles due south of Saundatti are the ruins of an extensive hill fort called Parasgad, from which the whole Subdivision derives its name. Sub-judge's court and dispensary. About $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-west of Saundatti, a large Hindu fair in honour of the goddess Yellama is held twice a year about the full moon in April or May and in November or December. On each occasion, from 15,000 to 20,000 persons attend.

Sauráth.—Village in Darbhanga District, Bengal; 8 miles west of Madhubaní. Famous for the large *melá* (religious fair) which takes place annually in June or July, when vast numbers of Bráhmans assemble to settle their children's marriages. Sauráth contains a temple of Mahádeo, built about 1845 by the Darbhanga Rájá; close to this building is a tank, shaded by a fine mango grove, under which people buy and sell during the *melá*. At other times the place is deserted.

Sáusár.—The southern *tahsil* or Subdivision of Chhindwára District, Central Provinces. Area, 1088 square miles; pop. (1872), 99,510, residing in 359 villages or townships and 20,106 houses.

Sausár.—Town in Chhindwára District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. $21^{\circ} 40' N.$, and long. $78^{\circ} 50' E.$, 34 miles south of Chhindwára town, on the main road to Nágpur. Estimated pop. 4077, chiefly agricultural. Sausár has a Government school, and a small fort; the proprietor is the representative of the Gond dynasty of Deogarh.

Savanúr (*Sawanúr*).—Native State, situated within Dhárwár District, Bombay; lying between $14^{\circ} 56' 45''$ and $15^{\circ} 1' 45'' N.$ lat., and between $75^{\circ} 21' 45''$ and $75^{\circ} 25' E.$ long. Area, 66 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 17,288; estimated gross revenue, £7327. The principal products are cotton, *joár*, rice, *kulthi*, *múng*, cocoa-nut, castor-oil seed, *tur*, *pán*, and sugar-cane. The reigning family are Muham-madans of Afghán descent. Abdul Raúf Khán, the founder of the family, obtained in 1680 from the Emperor Aurangzeb the grant of the *jágír* of Bankápur, Torgal, and Azímnagar, with a command of 7000 horse. The family, though connected by marriage with Tipú Sultán, was entirely stript of its possessions by him, and the Nawáb sought the protection of the Peshwá, from whom he received a pension of £4800 per annum. This was subsequently converted into a grant of territory, yielding an equal amount of revenue, through the intervention of General Wellesley. The present Nawáb of Savanúr is Abdul Dalil Khán, who was born about 1860.

Savanúr.—Chief town of Savanúr State, Bombay. Lat. $14^{\circ} 58' N.$, long. $75^{\circ} 23' 5'' N.$; pop. (1872), 8686.

Savandrug.—Hill fort in Bangalore District, Mysore, locally known as the Magadi Hill, 4024 feet above sea level. Lat. $12^{\circ} 55' N.$, long. $77^{\circ} 21' E.$ It consists of an enormous mass of granite, standing on a base 8 miles in circumference. The summit is divided by a chasm into two peaks—the *Kári* or black, and the *Búli* or white—each of which is abundantly supplied with water. The first fortifications are said to have been erected in 1543, by Sámanta Ráya, who gave the hill his own name of Sámanta-durga. The present appellation dates from the end of the 16th century, when Immadi Kempe Gauda of Bangalore established his stronghold here, in which his family maintained themselves until 1728. The fort was captured in that year by the Hindu Rájá of Mysore, from whom it passed into the hands of Haidar Ali. In 1791, Savandrug was stormed by a British army commanded by Lord Cornwallis. On December 10, a force under Colonel Stuart encamped within 3 miles of the place; and after great difficulties in bringing up the battering train, the bombardment was opened on the 20th, and in three days the breach was declared practicable. The

assault was delivered on the following day at eleven o'clock in the forenoon, under the eyes of Lord Cornwallis. The whole line of fortifications was carried within an hour, without the loss of a single life on the British side.

Savari (*Seberi, Severi*).—River in Central India.—See **SABARI**.

Sávda.—Chief town of the Sávda Subdivision of Khándesh District, Bombay, and a station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 285 miles north-east of Bombay city; situated in lat. $21^{\circ} 8' 30''$ N., and long. $75^{\circ} 56'$ E. Pop. (1872), 7552. Sávda was finally ceded by the Nizám to the Peshwá in 1763, and was shortly afterwards bestowed on Sardár Ráste, whose daughter was given in marriage to the Peshwá. Chief trade, cotton, gram, linseed, and wheat. Post office.

Sávtri (*Savatri*).—River of Bombay, rising on the western declivity of the Mahábaleshwar range, Sátára District, in lat. $18^{\circ} 28'$ N., and long. $73^{\circ} 30'$ E. It flows west past the town of Mhar, and falls into the Arabian Sea in lat. $17^{\circ} 58'$ N., and long. $73^{\circ} 3'$ E. Thornton gives the total length of the river at about 70 miles, and says 'it is navigable as far as Mhar, 30 miles from its mouth, and was formerly accessible at all times by large ships; but, a sandbank at the mouth constantly increasing during the south-west monsoon, its facilities for navigation are greatly diminished. The bar has 10 feet of water at low tide, and 21 at high water, spring tides; and ships may anchor inside in 5 fathoms.'

Sáwantwári.—Native State in Bombay, under the charge of a Political Superintendent; situated about 200 miles south of Bombay city, between $15^{\circ} 38' 30''$ and $16^{\circ} 14'$ N. lat., and between $73^{\circ} 37'$ and $74^{\circ} 23'$ E. long. Area, about 900 square miles; pop. (1872), 190,814. The State is bounded on the north and west by the British District of Ratnágiri, on the east by the Sahyádrí Mountains, and on the south by the Portuguese territory of Goa. The general aspect of the country is strikingly picturesque. From the sea-coast to the foot of the Sahyádrí Hills, a distance varying from 20 to 25 miles, are densely wooded hills, and in the valleys, gardens and groves of cocoa-nut and betel-nut palms. The chief streams are the Kárli on the north, and the Terekhol on the south. Both are navigable for small native craft; the Terekhol for about 12, and the Karli for about 15 miles. The climate is humid and relaxing, with a heavy rainfall, averaging for the ten years ending 1872, $133\frac{1}{2}$ inches. April is the hottest month in the year, for in May—though the temperature is slightly higher—a strong sea-breeze, the precursor of the south-west monsoon, tempers the heat. Especially near the Sahyádrí Hills, the State is rich in forests of teak, blackwood, *ain* (*Terminalia glabra*), *kher* (*Acacia catechu*), *jamba* (*Mimosa xylocaspa*). Nearer the sea, the more important trees are the jackwood, mango, and *bhirand*, whose fruit yields *kokam* oil. The

principal fruits are mangoes and plantains, which are abundant and of excellent quality, citrons, limes, and jack fruit. Cocoa-nuts and cashew-nuts are very plentiful. The staple agricultural produce is rice ; but the quantity grown is not sufficient for the wants of the people, and a good deal is imported. Excepting rice, none but the coarsest grains and pulses are raised. A species of oil-seed, *#1* (*Sesamum orientale*), hemp, and black and red pepper, are also grown, but neither cotton nor tobacco. Both soil and climate are against the cultivation of wheat and other superior grains. For these, the people have to look to the country east of the Sahyádrí Hills, whence during the fair season, from October to June, large supplies come. Coffee has been grown with success, and it is believed that the spurs from the Sahyádrí range are suited to its cultivation on a large scale. Iron-ore of fair quality is found in the neighbourhood of the Rámghát, in the Sahyádrí range. The forests and wooded slopes of the Sahyádrí Hills contain large numbers of tigers, leopards, bison, *sámbhar* deer, etc.

Population.—Of the total population, in 1872, of 190,814 persons, 182,688 were Hindus, 4152 Muhammadans, and 3954 Christians. The last are all Roman Catholics, and consist of Indo-Portuguese and natives who have embraced Christianity. The common language of the people is a dialect of Marathí, known as Kurauli. The sturdy and easily managed Marhattás and Mhars of this State are favourite recruits for the Bombay Native Infantry regiments. The inhabitants generally are poor, and are engaged chiefly in agriculture.

Manufactures.—Salt of an inferior kind is manufactured, but the quantity is small and scarcely suffices for the wants of the people. The principal industries of the State consist of gold and silver embroidery work on both leather and cloth ; fans, baskets, and boxes of *khaskhas* grass, ornamented with gold thread and beetles' wings ; lacquered toys, and playing cards ; and elegant drawing-room ornaments carved from the horn of the buffalo and bison.

Means of Communication.—There are no railways ; but an excellent trunk road has recently been constructed from the seaport of Vingorla, which, passing through the State, leads by an easy gradient over the Sahyádrí Hills to Belgáum and the Southern Marhattá Country. The other chief lines of communication with the Deccan are the Rámghát, the Talghát, and the Phondághát.

Trade.—Within the limits of the State there is not much local trade ; but during the fair season, a considerable quantity of cotton, hemp, and grain from the rich Districts of the Southern Marhattá Country passes coastwards, especially to the port of Vingorla. Compared with the exports, the imports at Vingorla are small.

History.—About three hundred years ago, one Mang Sáwant of the Bhonslá family, whose headquarters were at the village of Hodwára,

about 6 miles from Wári, stoutly held his own against the Muhammadan power then established at Bijápur. After his death, the country was subjugated by the Muhammadans, and Mang's successors are supposed to have become feudatories of the Bijápur kings. The chief who freed his country from the Muhammadan yoke and established its independence was Khem Sávant Bhonslá, who ruled from 1675 to 1709, and was a contemporary of Sháhu, the grandson and successor of Sivají, the founder of the Marhattá power. Sháhu assigned to him, conjointly with the chief of Kolába, half the revenue of the Salsi Mahál. It was during the time of Khem's successor (1709-1737) that the Sávantwári State first entered into relations with the British Government. A treaty was concluded between them against the notorious piratical chief, Kanojí Angria of Kolába. The chief who ruled from 1755 to 1803, under the name of Khem Sávant the Great, married in 1763 the daughter of Jáyaji Sindhia; and consequently the title of Rái Bahádur was conferred upon him by the Emperor of Delhi. The chieftain of Kolhápur, envious of this honour, made a descent on Wári, and captured several hill fortresses, which were, however, through Sindhia's influence, subsequently restored. The rule of Khem Sávant, who, not content with wars on land, also took to piracy, was one long contest against Kolhápur, the Peshwá, the Portuguese, and the British. Khem Sávant died childless in 1803; and the contest for the succession was not decided till 1805, when Khem Sávant's widow, Lakshmibái, adopted a child, Rámchandra Sávant *alias* Bháu Sáhí. This child lived for three years, and was then (1805) strangled in bed. Phond Sávant, a minor chosen to fill his place, died in 1812, and was succeeded by his son, Khem Sávant, a child of eight years. This chief, when he came of age, proved unable to manage his estate, and after several revolutions and much disturbance, at last in 1838 agreed to make over the administration to the British Government. After this, rebellion twice broke out (in 1839 and 1844), but the disturbances were soon suppressed, and the country has since remained quiet. The present (1876-77) chief is Sar-Desái Raghunáth Sávant Bhonslá. He is a minor of fifteen, and is under tuition at the Rájkumár College at Rájkot. He is entitled to a salute of 9 guns. He enjoys an estimated gross revenue of £30,000, and maintains a military force of 436 men, styled the Sávantwári Local Corps. The family of the chief hold a title authorizing adoption, and in point of succession follow the rule of primogeniture. There are 36 schools in the State, with a total of 1819 pupils.

Sáyla.—Native State in the Political Agency of Káthiáwár, Bombay; comprising 38 villages. Pop. (1872), 16,528. The climate is hot and dry, but healthy. Cotton is the chief produce; the usual grains are also grown. Dyeing is the only industry of consequence. The nearest

port is Dholera. Sáyla ranks officially as a 'third-class' State in Káthiáwár; and the ruler executed the usual engagements in 1807. The present chief (1876-77), Thákur Kesri Sinhjí, a Hindu of the Jhála Rájput caste, is fifty-four years old, and administers his estate in person. He enjoys an estimated gross yearly revenue of £6000, and pays a tribute of £1551 jointly to the British Government and the Nawáb of Junágarh. The family of the chief follow the rule of primogeniture in point of succession. There are 2 schools in the State, with a total of 201 pupils.

Sáyla.—Chief town of Sáyla State, Káthiáwár, Bombay; situated in lat. $22^{\circ} 32' N.$, and long. $71^{\circ} 32' E.$ Pop. (1872), 6623.

Sayyidábád.—Eastern *tahsil* of Muttra (Mathura) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in the fertile Doáb portion of the District. Area, 180 square miles, of which 150 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 108,305; land revenue, £28,681; total Government revenue, £31,552; rental paid by cultivators, £41,408.

Sayyidnagar.—Old and decayed town in Jaláun District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 2980. Distant from Urái 17 miles south-west, among the ravines of the Betwa. Large exports of cloth, dyed red and yellow; considerable manufacture and dyeing of cotton. Police station; school. Local revenue, £74.

Sayyidpur.—Municipal town in Farídpur District, Bengal, on the Barásíá river, in lat. $23^{\circ} 25' 10'' N.$, and long. $89^{\circ} 43' E.$ Estimated pop. (1876), 6324, mainly supported by river traffic. Large import trade in cotton, spices, iron, copper, brass, and bell-metal utensils. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £166; incidence of taxation, 5½d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Sayyidpur.—Western *tahsil* of Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in the angle formed by the junction of the Gumti with the Ganges. Consists chiefly of low alluvial soil. Area, 247 square miles, of which 152 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 147,879; land revenue, £22,609; total Government revenue, £23,847; rental paid by cultivators, £37,374.

Sayyidpur (*Sayyidpur Bhitári*).—Village and ruins in Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of Sayyidpur *tahsil*; lying in lat. $25^{\circ} 32' 5'' N.$, and long. $83^{\circ} 15' 40'' E.$, on the north bank of the Ganges, 30 miles west of Gházípur town. Government charitable dispensary. Chiefly noticeable for its numerous remains of Hindu or Buddhist origin, including a flat-roofed, richly carved, massive stone building, besides several fragments and entire figures of ancient sculpture. At Bhitri, 5 miles north-east of the town, stands a sandstone monolith, 28 feet in height, of which 5 or 6 feet are buried beneath the ground. It bears an inscription recording the achievements of five kings of the Gupta dynasty. A bridge of three arches,

built by the Muhammadans out of stones from Hindu structures, spans a small river.

Sayyidpur.—*Táluk* of the Rohri Deputy Collectorate, Shikárpur District, Sind. Area, 167 square miles; pop. (1872), 20,488; gross revenue (1873-74), £4574.

Sayyidwálá.—Village in Montgomery District, Punjab, and headquarters of a police circle; situated in lat. $31^{\circ} 6' N.$, and long. $73^{\circ} 31' E.$, on the north bank of the Rávi, 20 miles north-east of Gugaira. Pop. (1868), 2854.

Sealkote.—District, *tahsil*, and town in the Punjab.—See SIALKOT.

Seberi (*Severi*).—River in Central India.—See SABARI.

Secunderábád.—*Tahsil* and town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces.—See SIKANDARABAD.

Secunderábád (*Sikandarábád*, or 'Alexander's Town').—British military cantonment in the Native State of Haidarábád or the Nizám's Dominions; situated 6 miles north-east of Haidarábád city, in lat. $17^{\circ} 26' 30'' N.$, and long. $78^{\circ} 33' E.$, at an elevation of 1830 feet above sea level. Secunderábád cantonment is the largest military station in India, and forms the headquarters of the Haidarábád Subsidiary Force, which constitutes a Division of the Madras army. The military force stationed here in April 1880 consisted of one regiment of European and another of Native Cavalry, one battery of Royal Horse Artillery, three batteries of Royal Artillery (field and garrison), two regiments of British and three of Native Infantry, with a company of Sappers and Miners. An Ordnance Establishment has charge of the Arsenal, and there is also a large Commissariat Staff. This force is maintained by the British Government, under the terms of a treaty with the Nizám dated 21st May 1853, in lieu of certain contingent and auxiliary forces which had been previously raised by the Nizám to co-operate with the British army, but had proved inefficient. The cost of the force is defrayed out of the revenues of certain Districts ceded by the Nizám under the treaty of May 1853, revised by a second treaty in 1860. (See HAIDARABAD STATE.) Up to the year 1850, the cantonment of Secunderábád consisted of a line of barracks and huts, extending for a distance of 3 miles from east to west, with the artillery in the front and on the left flank, and the infantry on the right. Since that date, however, the cantonment boundaries have been extended as far as BOLÁRAM, covering a total area of 19 square miles, including many interspersed villages. New double-storied barracks have been erected for the European soldiers, and the quarters for the Native troops, which are situated at some distance, are also comfortably built. The country for many miles around undulates into hummocks, with a few outcrops of underlying rock, crossed from east to west by greenstone dikes. East of

the cantonment are two large outbursts of granite ; in the north-east is a granite hill known as Múl Alí, and near it another called Kadam Rasúl, from a legend that it bears an impress of Muhammad's foot. Shady trees line the roads of the cantonment, and near the European barracks and Native lines are clusters of date and palmyra palms. Otherwise the face of the country is bare, with but little depth of soil in the elevated parts. Cultivation is carried on in the dips and valleys, in several of which tanks have been constructed. The water supply from wells is not abundant. Immediately to the south-west of the cantonment is a large artificial reservoir or tank, known as the Husáin Ságar, about 3 miles in circumference. Secunderábád town, which forms the cantonment *bázár*, contains about 8000 houses (7938 in 1866), and a population, calculated at 4 persons per house, of about 32,000, all engaged in business as shopkeepers, petty traders, or artisans. The Haidarábád Subsidiary Force is not the sole military body in the neighbourhood. Adjoining the Secunderábád cantonment to the north is the Boláram cantonment, one of the stations of the Haidarábád contingent under the immediate authority of His Highness the Nizám. The force stationed here consists of one regiment of cavalry, one of infantry, and a battery of artillery. Again, about 2 miles south of Secunderábád cantonment, are the lines of the Haidarábád Reformed Troops, also belonging to the Nizám, comprising artillery, cavalry, and infantry, under the command of a European officer. Altogether, within a space of 10 miles from north to south, about 8000 disciplined soldiers are cantoned. During the Mutiny of 1857, an unsuccessful attempt was made to tamper with the fidelity of the troops at Secunderábád. An attack on the British Residency was repulsed ; and during the troubled times of 1857-58 much good service was rendered by both the Subsidiary Force and the Haidarábád contingent. In the rainy season, especially towards its close, the climate of Secunderábád and its neighbourhood is unhealthy, both for Europeans and natives. The rainfall varies greatly ; during the thirty years 1841-70 it averaged 27 inches, the range being from 13 to 43 inches. The prevalent diseases are fevers, dysentery, and rheumatism.

Seesaugor.—District, Subdivision, and town in Assam.—*See* SIBSAGAR.

Segauli.—Town in Champáran District, Bengal ; situated 15 miles from Motihárá, on the Bettia road, in lat. $26^{\circ} 46' 41''$ N., and long. $84^{\circ} 47' 51''$ E. A military station, and ordinarily occupied by a regiment of Native cavalry. An embankment protects the cantonment from inundation by the Sikhrená river, which flows a little distance to the north. In 1857, the main body of the 12th Regiment of Irregular Horse stationed here broke into open mutiny, and murdered their commanding officer ; though a detachment did good service during the

subsequent operations in Oudh.—(See Sir J. W. Kaye's *History of the Sepoy War*, vol. iii. pp. 102-107.)

Seghúr (Sígúr) Ghát.—Mountain pass in the Nilgiri Hills, Madras, running down the north face of the hills from Mutinád to near the village of Seghúr. Lat. $11^{\circ} 29'$ to $11^{\circ} 31' 40''$ N., and long. $76^{\circ} 43' 30''$ to $76^{\circ} 43' 35''$ E. Being practicable for laden carts and other wheeled conveyances, it is the most frequented of all the Nilgiri gháts. 'By this pass,' says Pharoah, 'communication is kept up with Bāngalore, Madras, and all places to the northward; and the chief bulk of European supplies, heavy baggage, horse gram, rice, etc., comes to the settlement by it. It also affords the means of transit for the teak timber used on the hills in the form of rafters, planks, etc.; the road passes near the forests where the trees are cut.' The corrected spelling is Sígúr.

Sehore.—Town in Bhopál State, Central India; situated on the right bank of the Saven, in lat. $23^{\circ} 11' 55''$ N., and long. $77^{\circ} 7' 14''$ E., on the route from Sagar (Saugor) to Asírgarh, 132 miles south-west of the former place, and 152 north-east of the latter; distant from Bhopál city 22 miles south-west. Manufacture of printed muslins. Good *bázár*.

Sehwán.—Sub-District of Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind, lying between $25^{\circ} 13'$ and $26^{\circ} 56'$ N. lat., and between $67^{\circ} 10'$ and $68^{\circ} 29'$ E. long. Area, 3646 square miles; pop. (1872), 162,836 souls. Bounded north by Mehar, a Subdivision of Shikárpur; east by the Indus; south by the Jerruck (Jhirak) Subdivision of Karáchi (Kurrachee) District; and west by the Khirthar and Pab Mountains. The administrative headquarters are at KOTRI TOWN.

The Sub-District of Sehwán differs from the rest of Sind in being more hilly. It contains the only large lake in the Province, viz. the MANCHHAR (Manchur). The chief hills are the LAKI range, an offshoot from the Khirthar Mountains; and the Jatil Hills. There are 37 Government canals in Sehwán, the principal being the WESTERN NARA, the ARAL, the PHITO, and the KARO. The Sub-District contains several hot springs. Game and fish of all kinds are abundant. The Government forests cover an area of 24,474 acres, and yielded in 1873-74 a revenue of £3185. The population of Sehwán in 1872 numbered 162,836, of whom 139,158 were Muhammadans, 23,191 Hindus, and 387 'others.' The principal antiquities are the forts of SEHWAN and Rání-ka-kot. (See SANN.)

Agriculture.—The Dádú and Sehwán *tálúks* contain perhaps the finest wheat lands in the whole of Sind. Much cultivation is carried on in the neighbourhood of the Manchhar Lake, after the subsidence of the annual inundation. The principal crops of the Sub-District are wheat, *joár*, cotton, barley, pulse, oil-seeds, and vegetables. The prevailing tenure is the *samíndári*; about one-twelfth of the whole area of Sehwán

is held in *jdgir*, or revenue-free. There is a large transit trade in wool, cotton, dried fruits, etc. (See KARACHI TOWN.) The local traffic consists of fish, mats, cloths, oil, *ghl*, and grain. The principal manufactures comprise carpets, coarse cotton cloth, rugs, and mats. The aggregate length of roads in the Sub-District is about 450 miles; the number of ferries is 20, nearly all of which are on the Indus.

Administration.—The total revenue of Sehwan Sub-District, in 1873-74, amounted to £27,760, of which £23,510 was derived from imperial and £4250 from local sources. The land tax, *abkúri* (excise), and stamp duties formed the main items. Two subordinate civil courts, at Sehwan and Kotri. Total number of police, 294, or 1 to every 554 of the population. Number of municipalities, 6, viz. Kotri, Sehwan, Arázi, Bubak, Dádú, and Mánjhand. Aggregate municipal income (1873-74), £2331. Subsidiary jails at Dádú, Sehwan, Mánjhand, and Kotri. Number of Government schools (1873-74), 22, with 972 pupils.

Climate.—Average annual rainfall registered at Sehwan, 6·43 inches; at Kotri, 8·09 inches. Prevalent diseases, fevers and cholera. Hospital at Kotri, dispensary at Sehwan.

Sehwan.—*Táluk* in Sehwan Deputy Collectorate, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind. Area, 924 square miles; pop. (1872), 54,292; gross revenue (1873-74), £9974.

Sehwan.—Chief town of Sehwan *táluk*, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind; situated in lat. 26° 26' N., and long. 67° 54' E., on the main road from Kotri to Shikárpur *via* Lárhána; 84 miles north-north-west of Kotri, and 95 miles south-south-west of Lárhána; elevation above sea level, 117 feet. The river Aral, which formerly flowed close to the town, has now quite deserted it. A few miles south of Sehwan, the Laki Hills terminate abruptly, forming a characteristic feature of this portion of the Sub-District. Sehwan is the headquarters of a *múkhhtiárkár* and *táppáddár*. Pop. (1872), 4296, including 2324 Muhammadans and 1956 Hindus. The Muhammadan inhabitants are for the most part engaged in fishing; the Hindus, in trade. A large section of the people are professional mendicants, supported by the offerings of pilgrims at the shrine of LáI Sháhbáz. The tomb containing the remains of this saint is enclosed in a quadrangular edifice, covered with a dome and lantern, said to have been built in 1356 A.D., and having beautiful encaustic tiles with Arabic inscriptions. Mírzá Jání, of the Tarkhan dynasty, built a still larger tomb to this saint, which was completed in 1639 A.D. The gate and balustrade are said to have been of hammered silver, the gift of Mír Karam Alí Khán Tálpur, who also crowned the domes with silver spires. The chief object, however, of antiquarian interest in Sehwan is the fort ascribed to Alexander the Great. This is an artificial mound 80 or 90 yards high, measuring round the summit 1500 by 800

feet, and surrounded by a broken wall. The mound is evidently an artificial structure, and the remains of several towers are visible. The fortifications are now in disrepair. The public buildings of Sehwan are the Subordinate Civil Court, a Government Anglo-vernacular school, dispensary, post office, lock-up, Deputy Collector's and travellers' bungalow, and *dharmsála*. The municipal income varies from £300 to £400. The police number 37 men. The transit trade is mainly in wheat and rice; and the local commerce, in cloth and grain. The manufactures comprise carpets, coarse cloth, and pottery. The art of seal-engraving is also practised. Sehwan is undoubtedly a place of great antiquity. Tradition asserts that the town was in existence at the time of the first Muhammadan invasion of Sind by Muhammad Kásim Safiki, about 713 A.D.; and it is believed to be the same place which submitted to his arms after the conquest of Nerankot, the modern Haidarábád.

Sejakpur.—One of the petty States of North Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 5 villages, with 3 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £532; of which £31 is paid as tribute to the British Government, and £111 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Selam.—District and town in Madras.—See SALEM.

Selere.—River in Vizagapatam District, Madras.—See SILLER.

Selu (*Sailu*).—Town in Wardhá District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 50' N., and long. 78° 46' E., on the Bor river, 11 miles north-east of Wardhá town, and close to the old high-road from Nágpur to Bombay. Pop. (1872), 3184. Selu was an old Gond settlement; but the fort was built by a chief named Kandeli Sardár. It was the scene of a skirmish between Hazári Bhonslá and the Pindáris. Chief manufacture, cotton cloth; in which, as well as in raw cotton, much business takes place at the market held every Tuesday. The town has a *sardí* (native inn), police outpost, and vernacular school.

Sendamangalam.—Town in Salem District, Madras.—See SHENDAMANGALAM.

Sendgarsa.—Peak in the Santál Parganá District, Bengal, overlooking the great central valley of the Rájmahál Hills. Height, about 2000 feet.

Sendúrjana.—Town in Ellichpur District, Berar, about 60 miles south-east of Ellichpur town. Pop. (1867), 7032. A very fine well, which was built by a former *jágirdár*, and is said to have cost £2000, is about a mile distant. The principal trade of the large market held on Fridays is in turmeric, cotton, and opium. Municipal revenue, £136. Government school and police outpost.

Senhátí.—Town in Jessor District, Bengal, 4 miles north of Khulná; contains the largest collection of houses in the District, and is perhaps the most jungly place in it. Pop. above 2000. The numerous tanks

scattered over the town are filled with weeds and mud; and the roads of the village, with one exception, wind through masses of brushwood. Market-place, called Nimái Rái's *básár*, with a temple to Káli; one or two sugar refineries, the produce of which is exported chiefly to Calcutta. On the banks of the river Bhairab are two shrines—one dedicated to Sítalá, goddess of small-pox, and the other to Jwarnaráyan, god of fever.

Sentapilli (*Santapilly*).—Village and lighthouse in Vizagapatam District, Madras.—See CHANTAPILLI.

Seodivadúr.—One of the petty States of Undsarviya, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue in 1876, £97; of which £5 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and 16s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Seonáth (or *Seo*).—River rising in lat. 20° 30' N., long. 80° 43' E., in the Pánábáras Chiefship, in Chánda District, Central Provinces. After leaving a hilly tract, it flows through Nándgáon State and the richer parts of Ráipur District; then turning to the east, it forms for some distance the boundary between Ráipur and Biláspur; and finally joins the Mahánadi at Devighát. Its chief affluents are the Agar, Hámp, Maniári, Arpá, Kárún, and Lílágar.

Seoní (*Seonce*).—A British District in the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 36' and 22° 58' N. lat., and between 79° 14' and 80° 19' E. long. Bounded on the north by Jabalpur, on the east by Mandla and Bálághát, on the south by Nágpur and Bhandára, and on the west by Narsinhpur and Chhindwára. Area, 3606 square miles; population in 1872, 407,330 souls. Recent transfers of territory from Seoní to the lately formed District of Bálághát have considerably reduced the area and population of this District, which are thus returned in the latest Parliamentary Abstract, that for 1879:—Area, 3252 square miles; pop. 299,856. The administrative headquarters are at SEONI TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Seoní occupies a portion of the Sápura tableland, which separates the valley of the Narbadá (Nerbudda), on the north, from the great plain of Nágpur, on the south. The greater part of the District consists of the plateaux of Lakhnádon and Seoní on the north and west, together with the valleys between them; and of the watershed and elevated basin of the Wainganga river on the east. Besides these, a narrow strip of rocky land, known as Dongartál, stretches out in the south-west; while the south-east corner belongs to the Katangí valley. Almost everywhere the District presents the varied scenery of an upland country. Geologically, northern Seoní constitutes a part of the wide field of overflowing trap which occupies the area between the Pachmarhí Hills westward and the Maikal range beyond Mandla to the east. In the south, the formation consists of crystalline rock. Towards the western boundary, the metamorphic

rocks, chiefly gneiss and micaceous schist, form the southern face of the hills which bound the Seoní plateau. Northwards they are lost sight of in the bed of laterite which overlies this part of the plateau, and covers the trap to within a short distance of Seoní town. A few miles east of Seoní, the crystalline rocks again come to the surface ; and from this point eastward the valley of the Ságar constitutes the line of demarcation between the crystalline rocks and the trap. The District is hilly throughout, but the physical features of the geological formations present a marked contrast. In the north the trap hills either take the shape of ridges with straight outlines and flattened tops, or, rising more gradually, expand into wide undulating plateaux. The valleys are wide and bare, and contain the rich black soil formed by disintegrated trap, spread over a deep deposit of calcareous clay ; while the intersecting streams, as they cut through the clay, expose broad masses of bare black basalt, alternating with marshy and stagnant pools. In the southern portion of the District the hills are more pointed, the valleys more confined, and the soil, even where it is rich, contains a large admixture of sand. Seoní must at one time have abounded with timber. At present the northern hills have much teak, but of an inferior and stunted growth. Along the Wainganga a few patches of young teak are found ; and the vast bamboo forest of Sonáwání, in the south-east corner of the District, contains fine *bije-sál* and *tendú* ; while to the north some large *sáj* grows upon the hills. The reserved forests consist of the great firewood reserve for Kámthi and Nágpur, covering 315 square miles ; and the reserve in the south for the protection of satin-wood, for which there is considerable demand in the Nágpur arsenal. The chief river of the District is the Wainganga, which rises a few miles east of the Nágpur and Jabalpur road, near the Kurái Ghát ; and soon after, turning to the south, forms the boundary between Seoní and Bálághát Districts. Its affluents are the Hiri and Ságar on the right bank ; the Thelí, Bijná, and Thánwar on the left. Besides these streams, the Tímar and the Sher flow northwards to the Narbadá ; and on the west, the Pench for some distance separates Seoní from Chhindwára. The Nágpur and Jabalpur road crosses the Sher at Sonái Dongrí, where a fine stone bridge spans the river. The general slope of the country is from east to west. The elevation of the Seoní and Lakhnádon plateaux varies from 1800 to 2200 feet above sea level. Iron is found in Juní and Katangi ; but no mines are worked in the District.

History.—About the 5th century of our era, a dynasty of conquerors appears to have reigned on the Sátpura tableland. Some grants of territory inscribed on copper plates found in Seoní, an inscription in the Zodiac cave at Ajantá, and a few passages in the *Puránas*, dimly disclose a line of princes sprung from one Vindhya-sakti. This mythical hero seems to be the eponymous monarch of

the Vindhyan Hills, in which designation the *Purānas* include the SATPURA range. But the history proper of Seoní only begins with the reign of Rájá Sangrám Sá of Garha-Mandla, who, in 1530, extended his dominion over fifty-two chiefships, three of which—Ghansor, Chauri, and Dongartál—form the greater part of the present District of Seoní. Nearly two centuries later, Narendra Sá, the Rájá of Mandla, conferred these tracts on Bakht Buland, the famous prince of Deogarh, in acknowledgment of his assistance in suppressing a revolt. Bakht Buland placed his kinsman Rájá Rám Sinh in possession of the Seoní country; and the latter built a fort at Chhapára and established his headquarters in that town. Soon afterwards, Bakht Buland made a progress through the District, and chanced to make the acquaintance of Táj Khán, a Muhammadan adventurer. The bravery of Táj Khán in killing a bear single-handed first attracted the attention and won the favour of the Deogarh monarch; and it was at the instigation, and in the name of Bakht Buland, that Táj Khán attacked and took Sanganhi in Bhandára District. In 1743, Raghojí, the Marhattá Rájá of Nágpur, finally overthrew the dynasty of Deogarh; but Muhammad Khán, who had succeeded his father, Táj Khán, at Sanganhi, refused to recognise the conqueror, and held out against the Marhattás for three years. Admiring his conduct, Raghojí offered him Seoní District if he would give up Sanganhi. Muhammad Khán consented; and repaired to Chhapára, whence he governed Seoní, with the title of Díván. One serious reverse chequered a fortunate and successful reign when, during the absence of Muhammad Khán at Nágpur, the Rájá of Mandla attacked and captured Chhapára. The square tomb which still stands in the ruined fort covers the large pit in which all those slain in the assault were buried. The Díván, however, speedily advanced from Nágpur with a large force, and recovered his capital; and the Thánwar and Ganga rivers were again declared to be the boundaries between Seoní and the Mandla kingdom. Majíd Khán, the eldest son of Muhammad Khán, succeeded in 1761; and was followed in 1774 by his son Muhammad Amin Khán, who removed his headquarters to Seoní, where he built the present family residence. After a prosperous reign of twenty-four years, he was succeeded by his eldest son, Muhammad Zamán Khán. The weakness of the new ruler proved disastrous both to the country and the dynasty. Chhapára, which, though no longer the capital, was still a large and flourishing city, with a population, it is said, of 40,000, was sacked and utterly ruined by the Pindáris; and soon afterwards, perceiving the incompetence of the Díván, and anxious to compensate by fresh acquisitions for their cession of Berar to the British in 1804, the Marhattás ejected Muhammad Zamán Khán. Raghojí then sold the government of the District for £30,000 per annum to Kharak Bhárti, a Gosáin. Eventually, with the downfall of the Nágpur

power, Seoni came under British rule, and since then has remained undisturbed. The District contains but few architectural remains. At Umargarh, Bhainságarh, Partágarh, and Kanhágarh, all situated on commanding spots along the southern margin of the Sátpuras, stand ruined forts attributed by tradition to the Bundelá Rájás. Of these, the Bhainságarh fort is in the least imperfect condition. Two old Gond forts also remain,—one in the Sonwára forest, near Ashta; the other near Ugli, on a well-nigh inaccessible rock in the bed of the Hirí river. At Ghansor, 20 miles north-east of Seoni town, the ruins of about 40 temples seem to indicate the former existence of a large town. Some of the plinths are still in their place, and are attributed to a caste of Hindus from the Deccan called Hemáranthís.

Population.—A rough enumeration in 1866 returned the population of Seoni at 421,650. The more careful Census of 1872 disclosed 407,330. The latest return (1879) shows the population of the re-constituted District to be 299,856. The Census of 1872 still remains, however, the only basis for a detailed examination of the people. It disclosed a population of 407,330 persons on an area of 3606 square miles, residing in 1661 villages or townships and 79,043 houses. Persons per square mile, 113; villages per square mile, 0·46; houses per square mile, 21·92; persons per village, 245·23; persons per house, 5·15. Classified according to sex—males, 205,496; females, 201,834. According to age, the male children in 1877 numbered 89,605, the female children, 84,197. Ethnical division in 1877—Europeans, 15; Eurasian, 1; aboriginal tribes, 157,903; Hindus, 252,978; Muhammadans, 15,408; Buddhists and Jains, 1070. The most numerous of the aboriginal tribes are the Gonds (148,183 in 1872), the remainder consisting of Kurkus, Bharias, etc. Among the Hindus in 1872, Bráhmans numbered 6361, the mass of the Hindu population consisting of Dhers or Mhars (40,207), Ponwars (30,305), Ahírs or Gaulís (26,907), Malís or Marals (24,873), and other cultivating or inferior castes. Native Christians in 1877, 40. The Ponwars supply the most industrious and enterprising agriculturists. Their appearance in Seoni dates rather more than a century back, their first settlements being about Sangarhi and Partágarh, whence they ultimately spread into Katangi. The Ahírs or Gaulís are a pastoral tribe, who have occupied the fine grazing ground to be found in most parts of the District, and especially the rocky strip of Dongartál in the south-west. The Muhammadans were probably more numerous when the line of Muhammad Khán governed the District. The diminution of the population between 1866 and 1872 may be explained by the emigration of agriculturists, especially Ponwars, to the lately formed District of Bálághát. Still more recently, the transfer of territory from Seoni to Bálághát has, according to the latest Parliamentary Return of 1879, reduced the

population of Seoní District to 299,856 and the area to 3252 square miles. The details given above, however, though only historically correct, still serve to indicate the composition of the people inhabiting the District. The prevailing languages in Seoní are Hindi and Urdu.

Division into Town and Country.—No town in Seoní District has a population exceeding 5000, with the exception of Seoní, the District capital—population in 1872, 9557. Townships of from 1000 to 5000 inhabitants, 21; from 200 to 1000, 675; villages of less than 200 inhabitants, 964. SEONI, the only municipality, had in 1876-77 an estimated population within municipal limits of 8042. The municipal income amounted to £1127, of which £991 was derived from taxation, being 2s. 5d. per head; total expenditure, £1081.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 3252 square miles, only 931 are cultivated; and of the portion lying waste, 753 are returned as cultivable. 18,451 acres of rice land in the Katangi valley are irrigated, entirely by private enterprise. The Government assessment is at the rate of 6½d. per acre of the cultivated area, or 3½d. on the cultivable area. Wheat forms the staple crop of the District, and is grown year after year on the rich black soil of the plateaux in the north and west. In 1876, it occupied 261,042 acres; while 193,751 acres were devoted to other food grains. The rice land of the District lies in the south. In 1876, rice was grown on 101,282 acres. Other products were—sugar-cane, 1058; cotton, 9336; fibres, 2888 acres. The *kása* grass, which yields an oil like the *cajepút*, and the *baherá* (*Terminalia bellerica*), *harrá* (*Terminalia chebula*), and *manjít* (*Rubia munjeesta*), plants which supply valuable dyes, abound in the District. The average out-turn per acre in 1876 is returned as follows:—Wheat, 490 lbs.; inferior grain, 384 lbs.; rice, 480 lbs.; sugar (*gúr*), 760 lbs.; cotton, 34 lbs.; fibres, 1098 lbs. The rocky tract called Dongartál, in the south-west, contains some excellent grazing ground, and its breed of cattle is famous. The stock of cows, bullocks, and buffaloes amounted in 1876 to 248,406 head. The Census of 1872 showed a total of 2961 proprietors, of whom 463 were classed as 'inferior.' The tenants numbered 55,954, of whom 16,673 had either absolute or occupancy rights, while 39,281 were tenants-at-will. The rent rates per acre in 1876 for the different qualities of land are returned as follows:—Land suited for wheat, 2s. 6d.; inferior grains, 1s. 6d.; rice or cotton, 2s. 2d.; sugar-cane, 4s. 3d.; fibres, 3s. 6d. The ordinary prices of produce per cwt. were as follows:—Wheat, 3s. 8d.; rice, 6s. 10d.; sugar (*gúr*), 17s. 9d.; cotton, 43s. 8d. Wages per diem averaged, for skilled labour, 1s. 3d.; for unskilled labour, 3d.

Commerce and Trade.—The trade of the District is chiefly carried on by means of markets in the towns. The most important are those held

at Lálbará, Wárá, Seoní, and Píparwání, to which the grain of the rice-producing tract in the south is brought for export to Nágpur and Kámthi (Kamptee). Kohká also, between Wárá Seoní and Píparwání, has a large salt market. Only two annual fairs take place in the District. The imports and exports are both insignificant, but the through traffic between Nágpur and Bhandára and the north causes some degree of business. The manufactures consist of coarse cloth, and some pottery of superior quality made at Kánhiwára. At Khawása, in the midst of the forest, leather is beautifully tanned. In 1876, the District possessed 90 miles of made roads. The chief line of communication is the high-road from Nágpur to Jabalpur, which enters the District near Khawása, and, passing by Seoní, crosses the border into Jabalpur District near Dhúmá. It has travellers' bungalows at Kurái, Chhapára, and Dhuma. A District road with American platform bridges runs from Seoní through Katangi, to join the Great Eastern Road. The other lines consist of mere bullock tracks, leading to various points in Bálághát and Nágpur Districts. Seoní has no means of communication by water.

Administration.—In 1861, Seoní was formed into a separate District of the British Government of the Central Provinces. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with Assistants and *tahsildárs*. Total revenue in 1876-77, £25,567, of which the land-tax yielded £15,170. Total cost of District officials and police of all kinds, £7588. Number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts within the District, 5; magistrates, 5. Maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 45 miles; average distance, 24 miles. Number of police, 315, costing £4369, being 1 policeman to about every 10 square miles and to every 960 inhabitants. The daily average number of convicts in jail in 1876 was 115, of whom 6 were females. The total cost of the jails in that year was £711. The number of Government or aided schools in the District under Government inspection was 45, attended by 1754 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—The plateaux enjoy a moderate and healthy climate. The average temperature in the shade at the civil station in 1876 is returned as follows:—May, highest reading 110° F., lowest 72° F.; July, highest 97° F., lowest 68° F.; December, highest 84° F., lowest 42° F. In that year, the rainfall did not exceed 45 inches. The average fall is 51·46 inches. The prevailing disease is fever, which proves most dangerous during the months succeeding the rains. In 1876, two charitable dispensaries, at Seoní and Lakhnádón, afforded medical relief to 14,036 in-door and out-door patients. The death-rate reached the high figure of 30·5 per thousand; the mean for the previous five years is returned at 18.

Seoní.—South-western *tahsil* or Subdivision of Seoní District, Central

Provinces, lying between $21^{\circ} 33'$ and $22^{\circ} 27'$ N. lat., and between $79^{\circ} 27'$ and $80^{\circ} 6'$ E. long. Area, 1384 square miles; pop. (1872), 160,542, residing in 606 villages or townships and 31,377 houses.

Seoni.—Principal town and administrative headquarters of Seoni District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. $22^{\circ} 5' 30''$ N., and long. $79^{\circ} 35'$ E., on the road from Nágpur to Jabalpur, nearly half-way between the two places. Pop. (1872), 9557. Founded in 1774 by Muhammad Amin Khán, who made it his headquarters instead of Chhapára. Seoni contains large public gardens, a fine market-place, and a handsome tank. Principal buildings—court-house, jail, school (which is well attended), dispensary, and post office. The climate is healthy, and the temperature moderate.

Seoni.—Central *tahsil* or Subdivision of Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces. Area, 633 square miles; pop. (1872), 52,377, residing in 144 villages or townships and 11,400 houses.

Seoni.—Town in Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. $22^{\circ} 28'$ N., and long. $77^{\circ} 29'$ E., on the high-road to Bombay. Pop. (1872), 7579. Of the town on this site in the time of Akbar, no remains exist. The present town dates from the conquest of the country by Raghojí Bhonslá about 1750, when a fort was built where an Amíl resided. A detachment of British troops from Hoshangábád took the fort in 1818. Seoni is perhaps the chief mercantile town in the whole Narbadá (Nerbudda) valley, being the entrepôt from which the cotton of Bhopál and Narsinhpur, as well as of Hoshangábád, is exported to Bombay. Grain is the other export. Imports—English cotton fabrics, spices, and metals. The Great Indian Peninsula Railway has a station at Seoni, and a *sardí* (native inn) has been built.

Seoniband.—Artificial lake in Bhandára District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° N., and long. $80^{\circ} 2'$ E., 8 miles north-west of the Nawegáon tank; about 8 miles in circumference; average depth, 30 feet; length of embankment, 630 feet. Constructed before 1550 by Dádú Patel Kohri, whose family held Seoni village for about 250 years. In the time of Raghojí I., the village was granted to Báka Báí, whose descendants still own it.

Seopur (Sheopur).—Town in Gwalior State, Central India; situated in lat. $25^{\circ} 39'$ N., and long. $76^{\circ} 41' 15''$ E., near the western boundary of the State. According to Thornton, it was formerly the capital of a small Rájput principality, but in the early part of the present century was subjugated by the forces of Daulat Ráo Sindhia. 'In 1816, when garrisoned by Sindhia's général, Baptiste, with 200 men, it was surprised and taken by escalade by the celebrated Rájput chief Jáí Sinh, who had only 60 men. The captor seized a large amount of treasure, and made the family of Baptiste prisoners.'

Seoráj.—Tract of country in Kángra District, Punjab; forming part

of the Kullu Subdivision, and lying between $31^{\circ} 20' 30''$ and $31^{\circ} 54' 30''$ N. lat., and between $77^{\circ} 14'$ and $77^{\circ} 43'$ E. long. Area, 575 square miles. This tract occupies the wild block of land between the Sainj and the Sutlej (Satlaj). The Jalori or Suket range, an offshoot of the Mid-Himálayan system, divides it into two portions, known as Outer and Inner Seoráj. The greater part of the surface is covered by forests of *deodar* and other trees; but the river valleys present frequent patches of careful cultivation, interspersed with picturesque villages of wooden houses, closely resembling Swiss *châlets*.

Seori Náráyan.—Eastern *tahsil* or Subdivision of Biláspur District, Central Provinces. Area, 1415 square miles; pop. (1872), 186,983, residing in 712 villages or townships and 43,529 houses.

Seori Náráyan.—Town in Biláspur District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. $21^{\circ} 43'$ N., and long. $82^{\circ} 39'$ E., 36 miles east of Biláspur town, on the Mahánadi river. Estimated pop. (1872), 1500. The temple to Náráyan (whence the name) appears, from an inscription on a tablet, to have been built about 841 A.D. It has no architectural merit. The town was once a favourite residence of the Ratanpur Court. In the rains, the Mahánadi at this point forms a fine river, navigable for large boats from Sambalpur; and even at other times, its channel retains a considerable depth of water. An important fair is held every February.

Seota.—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh; situated 32 miles east of Sítápur town, between the Chauka and Gogra rivers. Founded by Alha, a Chandel Thákur, a *protégé* of Rájá Jái Chánd of Kanauj, who granted to Alha possession of all the surrounding tract, known as Gánjar. The town contains a school, the ruins of a mosque, and an old *tálukdár's* fort. Good *bázárs*, and annual fair. Pop. (1869), 3428.

Sera.—Ancient name for the Southern Division of Dravida, the present Madras Presidency.—See CHERA and KERALA.

Serampur (*Srirámpur*).—Subdivision of Húglí District, Bengal; lying between $22^{\circ} 39'$ and $22^{\circ} 55'$ N. lat., and between 88° and $88^{\circ} 27'$ E. long. Area, 349 square miles; villages, 803; houses, 86,793; pop. (1872), 393,864; persons per square mile, 1129; villages per square mile, 2'30; persons per village, 490; houses per square mile, 249; persons per house, 4'5. This Subdivision comprises the 5 police circles of Serampur, Baidyabáti, Haripál, Krishnanagar, and Chanditalá.

Serampur (*Srirámpur*).—Headquarters of Serampur Subdivision, Húglí District, Bengal; situated on the west bank of the Húglí river, opposite Barrackpur, in lat. $22^{\circ} 45' 26''$ N., and long. $88^{\circ} 23' 10''$ E.; pop. (1872), 24,440. The municipality includes several neighbouring hamlets; total municipal revenue (1871), £3687, 4s.; rate of taxation, 3s. per head of population; 41 metalled and 36 unmetalled roads run through

the town. Serampur was formerly a Danish settlement, and remained so until 1845, when all the Danish possessions in India were ceded by treaty to the East India Company on payment of £125,000. Station on the East Indian Railway, 13 miles distant from Calcutta (Howrah station). Serampur is historically famous as the scene of the labours of the Baptist missionaries, Carey, Marshman, and Ward; the mission still flourishes, and its founders have established a church, school, college, and noble library in connection with it; there is also a dispensary here. *The Friend of India*, a weekly paper published at Serampur, once rendered this town conspicuous in the history of Indian journalism. Chief manufactures, paper and mats.

Seringapatam (*Srīrangapatnam*).—The old capital of the State of Mysore; situated on an island of the same name in the Káveri (Cauvery), 75 miles south-east by road from Bangalore, and 10 miles north-east from Mysore city. Lat. 12° 25' 33" N., long. 76° 43' 8" E. Population (1871), including the suburb of GANJAM, 10,594, consisting of 8805 Hindus, 1639 Muhammadans, 12 Jains, and 138 Christians; males, 5173; females, 5421. Municipal revenue (1874-75), £1048; rate of taxation, 2s. per head.

History.—The name is derived from Sri Ranga, one of the forms of the god Vishnu, who is worshipped by the same title on two other islands lower down the Káveri, SIVASAMUDRAM and SRIRANGAM; but his temple here takes first rank of the three, as Adi Ranga. Local legend relates that Gautama Buddha himself worshipped at this shrine. According to a Tamil ms., preserved in the Mackenzie collection, the site had become overgrown with jungle, and the temple was rebuilt in 894 A.D., during the reign of the last Chera or Kongu sovereign. In 1133, the Vishnuvite apostle Rámánuja received a grant of the island, with the surrounding country, from a king of the Ballála dynasty. The fort is said to have been founded in 1454 by a descendant of one of the local officers or *hebbars* appointed by Rámánuja. Seringapatam first appears in authentic history as the capital of the viceroys of the distant Hindu emperors of Vijayanagar, who took the title of Sri-ranga-ráyal. Tirumala, the last of these viceroys, surrendered in 1610 to Rájá Wodeyar, the representative of the rising house of MYSORE. Henceforth Seringapatam remained the seat of Government until the downfall of Tipú Sultán in 1799.

The existing fortifications were almost entirely constructed by Tipú, who thrice sustained a siege from British armies. In 1791, Lord Cornwallis, the Governor-General, commanding in person, advanced up to the walls, but was compelled to retire through want of provisions. In the following year, he won a decisive victory in the field, and had invested the city on all sides, when Tipú purchased peace by the cession of half his dominions. Finally, in 1799, the fort was stormed

by General Harris, and Tipú fell in the breach. The siege was begun in April of that year with a powerful battering train, and the assault was delivered after a bombardment of nearly one month's duration. The spot selected for breaching was in the wall facing the Káveri, for the defences were weakest on that side, and the river was at that season of the year easily fordable. After the capture, the island of Seringapatam was ceded to the British Government, whose property it still remains, being leased to the State of Mysore for an annual rent of £5000. The residence of the restored Hindu Rájá was removed to Mysore city, and Seringapatam immediately fell into decay. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, who visited the place in 1800, returned the population at 31,895 souls, as compared with 150,000 when Tipú Sultán was at the height of his power. An outbreak of epidemic fever accompanied this depopulation; and in 1811, the British military headquarters were removed to BANGALORE. At the present day, the ruins of Seringapatam are almost deserted; and the place bears such a bad name for malaria, that no European traveller dare sleep on the island. The natives attribute this change of climate to the destruction of the sweet flag, a plant to which they assign extraordinary virtue as a febrifuge. The suburb of GANJAM, said to have been colonized by Tipú with the deported inhabitants of SIRA, is a fairly prosperous place, with manufactures of cotton cloth and paper, and crowded fairs held three times in the year.

General Description.—The island of Seringapatam is about 3 miles in length from east to west, and 1 mile in breadth. The fort stands at its upper or western end, immediately overhanging the river. The plan is that of an irregular pentagon, with an extreme diameter of $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile. The defences, which were laid out by Tipú himself, are imposing for their massiveness, though not constructed on scientific principles. They consist of wall piled upon wall, and cavalier behind cavalier, the chief characteristic being the deep ditches cut through the solid granite. The whole remains in almost precisely the same condition as it was left after the siege, even to the breaches, except that a luxuriant growth of trees has been allowed to spring up. The spot where the English batteries were planted is now marked by two cannons stuck upright in the ground. Inside the fort are the ruins of Tipú's palace, now partly occupied as a storehouse for sandal-wood; the old temple of Ranga-nátha-swámi; the Jamá Masjid, a tall mosque with two minarets, built by Tipú shortly before his death; and a few traces of the palace of the early Hindu rulers. Just outside the walls is the Dariya Daulat Bágh, or 'garden of the wealth of the sea,' a building of graceful proportions, handsomely decorated with arabesque work in rich colours. It was erected by Tipú for a summer retreat, and contains the celebrated pictures representing the defeat

of Baillie at CONJEVARAM in 1780, which, after being twice defaced, were finally restored by the express orders of Lord Dalhousie when Governor-General. At the eastern or lower end of the island, near the suburb of Ganjám, is the Lál Bágh or 'red garden,' containing the mausoleum built by Tipú Sultán for his father Haidar Alí, in which he himself lies, by his father's side. This is a square building, with dome and minarets, surrounded by a corridor which is supported by pillars of black hornblende. The double doors, inlaid with ivory, were the gift of Lord Dalhousie. The inscription on the tombstone of Tipú relates how he died a martyr to Islám, and at the same time indicates by the initial letters the date of his death. Each of the two tombs is covered with a crimson pall, and the expenses of the place are defrayed by Government. The island of Seringapatam yields valuable crops of rice and sugar-cane, which are watered from a canal originally constructed by Tipú, and brought across from the mainland by an aqueduct.

Seringham.—Famous temple in Trichinopoli District, Madras.—*See* SRIRANGAM.

Sesháchalam.—Hill range in Cuddapah (Kadapá) District, Madras; an offshoot of the Pálkonda Hills, skirting the east and north-east of the District. Lat. $14^{\circ} 12'$ to $14^{\circ} 35'$ N., long. $78^{\circ} 1' 30''$ to $78^{\circ} 56'$ E. The hills are uniform in appearance, and rise from 1200 to 1800 feet above the level of the sea. There are no isolated peaks. The Sesháchalam Hills strike off in a westerly direction from the Pálkonda range at a point about 15 miles south of the Penner (Ponnaiyár) river. In some parts they are clothed with rich forests, and the scenery is very beautiful.—*See also* PALKONDA.

Settúr.—Town in Tinneveli District, Madras.—*See* SATUR.

Seven Pagodas.—Town in Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras.—*See* MAHABALIPUR.

Severi (*Seberi*).—River in Central India.—*See* SABARI.

Sewan.—Subdivision of Sárán District, Bengal. Area, 1293 square miles; villages, 2122; houses, 130,263; pop. (1872), 894,409, viz. 767,396 Hindus, 126,953 Musálmans, 53 Christians, and 7 'others.' Number of inhabitants per square mile, 672; villages per square mile, 1.64; persons per village, 421; houses per square mile, 101; inmates per house, 7; proportion of males in total population, 49.7 per cent. This Subdivision consists of the 4 police circles of Sewán, Daraulí, Barágáon, and Baraulí. It contained in 1869, 7 magisterial and revenue courts, a regular police force of 160 men, and 2836 village watchmen; the cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £7193, 6s.

Sewan.—Town in Sárán District, Bengal.—*See* ALIGANJ SEWAN.

Sewan.—Town in Karnál District, Punjab. Lat. $29^{\circ} 42'$ N., long. $76^{\circ} 25'$ E.; pop. (1868), 6206, consisting of 2587 Hindus, 2526

Muhammadans, and 1093 'others.' Distant from Kaithal 14 miles north.

Sewani.—Town in Hissár District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 4053, chiefly Muhammadan Rájputs, many of whom enjoy the title of Ráo. Thriving and prosperous town, said to have escaped unhurt from the periodical famines which ravage the dry surrounding tract. Distant from Hissár town 21 miles south.

Shabkadar (*Shankargarh*).—Town and fort in Pesháwar District, Punjab, and headquarters of the Doába-Dáúdzái *tahsil*; situated in lat. $34^{\circ} 10' 30''$ N., and long. $71^{\circ} 33'$ E., about 3 miles from the foot of the western hills, and 17 miles north-east of Pesháwar city. Flourishing agricultural community, with several Hindu traders. The fort, also known as Shankargarh, stands about a mile north-east of the village. It was built by the Sikhs, and is now strongly fortified, and held by a detachment from Pesháwar.

Sháhábád.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between $24^{\circ} 31'$ and $25^{\circ} 43'$ N. lat., and between $83^{\circ} 23'$ and $84^{\circ} 55'$ E. long. Area, 4385 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1872, 1,723,974. Sháhábád forms the south-western portion of the Patná Division. It is bounded on the north by the District of Gházipur in the North-Western Provinces, and the Bengal District of Sáran; on the east by Patná and Gayá Districts; on the south by Lohárdagá; and on the west by the Districts of Mírzápur, Benares, and Gházipur, in the North-Western Provinces. On the north and east, the boundary is marked by the Ganges and Son rivers, which unite in the north-eastern corner of the District. Similarly, the Karamnása forms the boundary with the North-Western Provinces on the west, from its source to its junction with the Ganges near Chaúsá; and the Son is the boundary with Lohárdagá on the south. The administrative headquarters are at the town of ARRAH.

Physical Aspects.—Sháhábád naturally divides into two distinct regions, differing in climate, scenery, and productions. The northern portion, comprising about three-fourths of the whole area, presents the ordinary flat appearance common to the valley of the Ganges in the Province of Behar; but it has a barer aspect than the trans-Gangetic Districts of Sáran and Tirhut. This tract is entirely under cultivation, and is dotted over with clumps of trees—mangoes, *mahua*, bamboos, palms, etc. The southern portion of the District is occupied by the Káimur Hills, a branch of the great Vindhyań range. The area of these hills situated within Sháhábád District amounts to 799 square miles. The boundaries of the hills, though well defined, are very irregular, and often indented by deep gorges scoured out by the hill streams. The edges are generally very precipitous, and huge masses of rocks which have fallen from the top obstruct in many

places the river channels below. The summit of the hills consists of a series of saucer-shaped valleys, each a few miles in diameter, with a deposit of rich vegetable mould in the centre, on which the finest crops are produced. There are several *gháts* or ascents to the top, some of which are practicable for beasts of burden. Two of the most frequented of these passes are Sarkí and Khariyarí—the first near the south-western boundary, the second in a deep gorge north of Rohtás. Two passes on the north side are more accessible,—one, known as the Khulá *ghát*, is 2 miles south of Sásserám; the other is at Chhanpathar, at the extreme west of the District, where the Karamnása forms a waterfall. The slopes to the south are covered with bamboo, while those on the north are overgrown with a mixed growth of stunted jungle. The general height of the plateau is 1500 feet above the level of the sea. The SON and the GANGES may be called the chief rivers of Sháhábád, although neither of them anywhere crosses the boundary. The District occupies the angle formed by the junction of these two rivers, and is watered by several minor streams, all of which rise among the Káimur Hills and flow north towards the Ganges. The most noteworthy of these are the following:—The Karamnása, the accursed stream of Hindu mythology, rises on the eastern ridge of the Káimur plateau, and flows north-west, crossing into Mírzápur District near Kulhuá. After a course of 15 miles in that District, it again touches Sháhábád, which it separates from Benares; finally it falls into the Ganges near Chausá. The Dhubá or Káo rises on the plateau, and flowing north, forms a fine waterfall, and enters the plains at the Tarrachándí Pass, 2 miles south-east of Sásserám. Here it bifurcates—one branch, the Kudra, turning to the west, and ultimately joining the Karamnása; while the other, preserving the name of Káo, flows north and falls into the Ganges near Gáighát. The Dargáutí rises on the southern ridge of the plateau, and after flowing north for 9 miles, rushes over a precipice 300 feet high, into the deep glen of Kadhar Kho; eventually it joins the Karamnása, passing on its way the stalactite caves of Gupta and the hill-fortress of Shergarh. This river contains water all the year round; and during the rains, boats of 1½ ton burthen can sail up stream 50 or 60 miles from its mouth. The chief tributaries of the Dargáutí are the Súrú, Korá, Gonhuá and Kudra. In the hilly southern portion of the District, large game abounds. Tigers, bears, and leopards are common; five or six varieties of deer are found; and among the other animals met with are the wild boar, jackal, hyæna, and fox. The *nilgái* (blue cow), the Antelope picta of naturalists, is seen on the Káimur tableland. Of game birds, the barred-headed goose (*Anser indicus*) is common. The black-backed goose (*Sarkidornis melanotus*) and the grey goose (*A. cinereus*) are also to be found. The former is very rare in Lower Bengal, and the latter is seldom seen south of Central

India, though it is a common visitor in the north. The other game birds of the District include many varieties of wild duck (the most remarkable being the sheldrake), several kinds of teal, partridges, curlews, and pea-fowl, jungle-fowl, snipe, and golden and common plovers.

The Son Canals.—The project of irrigating Sháhábád District by a comprehensive scheme of canals, which should also be navigable, dates from 1855, when Colonel Dickens proposed the construction of canals from Patná westwards to Chunár, a project subsequently extended to Monghyr in the one direction and to Mírzápúr in the other. It was, however, finally decided in 1871 that the original scheme should not be extended, and it is still an open question whether the Main Western Canal shall be extended even as far as Chunár. The work was commenced in 1869 by the construction of an anicut or weir at Dehrí-on-Son, about half a mile south of the causeway which carries the Grand Trunk Road from Bárún to Dehrí. This weir is 12,500 feet long by 120 broad, and 8 feet above the normal level of the river bed. It constitutes the headwork of the system. The Main Western Canal, starting from here, has to carry up to the fifth mile, where the **ARRAH CANAL** branches off in a north-westerly direction, 4511 cubic feet of water per second, to irrigate 1,200,000 acres, only 600,000 of which require simultaneous irrigation. The Arrah Canal takes off 1616 cubic feet of water per second, which leaves 2895 cubic feet up to the 12th mile, where the **BAXAR** and **CHAUSA CANALS** branch off in a northerly direction, abstracting a further quantity of 1260 cubic feet per second. In aligning the Main Western Canal, the great object was to escape a heavy cutting 30 feet deep at Dehrí, and carry the water along the ridges of the country. It curves round in a northerly direction to the head-works of the Arrah Canal, then bends to the west, crossing the Káo by means of a siphon aqueduct at Bihiyá, and finally stops on the Grand Trunk Road 2 miles west of Sásसरám. The distance from Dehrí to this point is $21\frac{1}{2}$ miles. The length of the Arrah Canal is 60 miles, from Dehrí to the point where it enters the Gangí *nadi*, by which it communicates (a farther distance of 10 miles) with the Ganges. With its two branches, the **BIHIYA** and **DUMRAON CANALS**, the Arrah Canal commands an area of 441,500 acres. The Bihiyá Canal, $30\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, has 7 distributaries; and the Dumráon branch, $40\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, has 12. The Arrah Canal has, in addition to these two branches, 4 principal distributaries. The total length of the Baxár and Chausá branches is 85 miles, and they command with their distributaries the country between the Káo and the Dunáuti on the west, a tract which greatly needs irrigation. As a rule, the canals run in such a way that they do not cross the natural drainage channels of the country; but where this is not so, siphons have been provided which allow the water to pass under the canal unhindered. Many of the works being still

incomplete, it is not possible to give at present a trustworthy estimate of the total cost of the work. There can be little doubt that these canals have conferred upon Sháhábád entire immunity from future famines. As far as the Son readings have gone, they show that a minimum supply of 3000 cubic feet of water per second can be depended upon up to the 15th of January; and this would suffice to irrigate 480,000 acres. But many of the cold-weather crops will have been completely irrigated before this date, so that the amount of water required decreases equally with the volume of the stream. Thus peas, which occupy a very large area, generally receive their last watering about Christmas, when the supply is 3500 cubic feet per second. Generally speaking, three waterings are required for the cold-weather crops—one early in November, one in December, and one in the middle of January. After February, the supply of water decreases very rapidly; and though in exceptional years of high flood, irrigation might be carried on up to March and April for sugar-cane and indigo, these crops can only be occasionally watered or drenched in an ordinary year.

Population.—Sháhábád was one of the Districts statistically surveyed in the beginning of the present century by Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, who made the area 4087 square miles, and the population 1,419,520. According to a later estimate, based upon the Survey of 1844-46, the area was returned at 4404 square miles, and the population at 1,602,274. The Census of 1872 disclosed a total population of 1,723,974 persons, living in 5110 villages and 275,041 houses; density of the population, 393 per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 1·16; houses per square mile, 63; persons per village, 337; persons per house, 6·3. The *thánás* or police circles along the Ganges are the most densely populated, having from 600 to 700 persons to the square mile. South of these comes a row of *thánás* with a population of between 400 and 500 to the square mile; and further south, the population becomes yet thinner, till in the *tháná* of Sásसरám, which is over 1000 square miles in extent, the density is only 169 to the square mile; this *tháná* contains much hilly, uncultivated land. Classified according to sex, there are in Sháhábád 835,374 males and 888,600 females; proportion of males in total population, 48·5 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under 12 years—males, 312,717, and females, 273,276; above 12 years—males, 522,657, and females, 615,324. The excessive proportion of male over female children is due to the fact that here, as elsewhere in India, natives consider that girls attain womanhood at an earlier age than boys reach manhood, and many girls are thus returned as women. The ethnical division of the people is as follows:—Non-Asiatics (mostly British), 257; mixed races (Eurasians), 137; Asiatics, other than natives of India (Armenians), 9; natives of India, 1,723,571. Aboriginal tribes are

represented principally by the Bhars or Rájbhars, of whom there are 5679, and the Karwárs, who number 5673. The Bhars claim to be Purihar Rájputs, and at one time occupied a large part of the District. They are now almost entirely confined to the Baxár Subdivision, and are one of the most degraded races, most of them being swine-herds. Among the low castes or semi-Hinduized aborigines, the most numerous are the Chamárs, shoemakers and workers in leather, of whom there are 91,777; and the Dosádhs (77,927), many of whom serve as village watchmen. Of the higher classes of Hindus, Bráhmans number 198,631, and Rájputs, 185,652. The most numerous caste in Sháhábád is that of the Goálás or cow-herds, of whom there are 214,605, or 12·4 per cent. of the total population. The Koeris, the chief cultivating caste of the District, number 130,394. The Hindus, as grouped together on the basis of religion, number altogether 1,590,643, or 92·2 per cent. of the total population. The followers of Islám are 132,671 in number, or 7·6 per cent. of the population—a smaller proportion than in any other District of Behar. The number of Christians in the District is 461, of whom 58 are natives. Eight municipalities contain a population of upwards of 5000, viz.—ARRAH, 39,386; SASSERAM, 21,023; DUMRAON, 17,356; BAXAR, 13,446; JAGDISPUR, 9400; BHOJPUR, 7004; NASRIGANJ, 5732; and BHABUA, 5071,—all of which see separately. Many of these are not really towns, but merely municipal aggregations of rural villages. They have a total population of 118,418, leaving 1,605,556 as forming the strictly rural population. Fifty-nine towns have a population of between 2000 and 5000; 227 contain from 1000 to 2000 inhabitants; 2128 have from 200 to 1000; and 2687 villages have fewer than 200. The principal place of interest in the District, from an antiquarian point of view, is the fort of Rohtás or ROHTASGARH, so called from Prince Rohitáswa, son of Harischandra, one of the kings of the Solar dynasty. The present buildings were erected by Mán Sinh, soon after he was appointed Viceroy of Bengal and Behar in 1644. The remains of the fortress occupy a part of the Káimur tableland, measuring about 4 miles from east to west, and 5 miles from north to south. Other places of interest in Sháhábád are the ruins of Shergarh fort, named after Sher Sháh, its founder; Chainpur fort, with several interesting monuments and tombs; Darautí and Baidyanáth, with ruins attributed to the Suars or Sivrás; Masár, the Mo-ho-so-lo of Hiouen Thsang; Chausá, the scene of the defeat of Humáyun in 1539 by Sher Sháh; Tilothu, near which are a fine waterfall and a very ancient Cheru image; and Pataná, once the capital of a Hindu Rájá of the Suar tribe. A description of these places will be found under their respective names. The sacred cave of Guptasar lies in the centre of the Káimur plateau, 7 miles from Shergarh.

The town of Arrah is invested with a special historical interest, as being the scene of a stirring episode in the Mutiny of 1857. A body of rebels, consisting of about 2000 Sepoys from Dinápur and four times as many armed villagers, under Kuár Sinh, marched in the end of July on Arrah. They reached the town on the 27th of that month, and forthwith released all the prisoners in the jail, and plundered the treasury. The European women and children had already been sent away, but there remained in the town about a dozen Englishmen, official and non-official, and three or four other Christians of different races. The Commissioner of Patná, Mr. Tayler, had supplied a garrison of 50 Sikhs. This small force held out for a long eight days, until rescued by Major Vincent Eyre. The centre of defence had been wisely chosen. At this time the East Indian Railway was in course of construction, under the local superintendence of Mr. Vicars Boyle, who, fortunately, had some knowledge of fortification. He occupied two houses, now known as the Judge's houses, the smaller of which, a two-storied building about 20 yards from the main house, was forthwith fortified and provisioned. The lower windows, etc. were built up, and sand-bags ranged on the roof. When the news came that the mutineers were streaming along the Arrah road, the Europeans and Sikhs retired to the smaller house. The rebels, after pillaging the town, made straight for Mr. Boyle's little fortress. A volley dispersed them, and forced them to seek the shelter of the larger house, only a few yards off, whence they carried on an almost continuous fire. They attempted to burn or smoke out the little garrison, and tried various other safe modes of attack, but they had no guns. Kuár Sinh, however, produced two small cannon which he had dug up, and artillery missiles were improvised out of the house furniture. In the small house there was no thought of surrender. Mr. Herwald Wake, the Magistrate, put himself in command of the Sikhs, who, though sorely tempted by their countrymen among the mutineers, remained faithful throughout the siege. A relieving party of 150 European troops, sent by water from Dinápur, fell into an ambuscade on landing in Sháhábád; and as time passed away and no help arrived, provisions and water began to run short. A bold midnight sally resulted in the capture of 4 sheep, and water was obtained by digging a well 18 feet deep inside the house. A mine of the enemy was met by countermining. On the 2nd August, the besieged party observed an unusual excitement in the neighbourhood. The fire of the enemy had slackened, and but few of them were visible. The sound of a distant cannonade was heard. Before sunset the siege was at an end, and on the following morning the gallant garrison welcomed their deliverers—Major Vincent Eyre with 150 men of the 5th Fusiliers, a few mounted volunteers, and 3 guns with 34 artillerymen. Major Eyre

had dispersed Kuár Sinh's forces on his way to Arrah, and they never rallied.

Agriculture.—The chief staple of Sháhábád is rice, of which three principal crops are grown, namely—the *bhadaí* or early crop, which is sown in July or August, and ripens in about sixty days; the *báwag*, sown broadcast in June or July, and reaped in November and December; and the *ropá* or winter crop, which is also sown in June and July, and reaped in December and January. Besides these, a very limited area is planted with *boro* rice, sown in November and cut in April. Many varieties of each rice crop are named. The other crops of the District include—wheat, barley, maize, and other cereals; gram, peas, lentils, and several other green crops; *tíl*, linseed, castor-oil, and mustard; many kinds of vegetables; cotton, hemp and jute, poppy, sugar-cane, betel-leaf, tobacco, safflower, indigo, etc. Roughly speaking, it may be estimated that of the total area (2,808,400 acres) of the District, 2,200,000 acres are under cultivation. The area usually covered by autumn (*bhadaí*) and winter (*aghani*) food crops is about 1,500,000 acres; that occupied by spring or *rabi* food crops, 600,000 acres; and that under other than food staples, 100,000 acres. The area under poppy is about 22,000 acres (average out-turn, 27½ lbs. of opium per acre); that under tobacco, only 300 acres. Wages and prices are reported to have risen, but the figures for early years are not available. The Government irrigation scheme already described has considerably raised the price of labour; and masons, carpenters, and blacksmiths, who before the opening of the canal works earned from 4½d. to 6d. a day, now make from 6d. to 9d. The rates of rent in 1872 were—for early rice land, on which an after-crop of pulses, vegetables, oil-seeds, etc. is grown, 1s. 7d. to 15s. 10d. an acre; for late rice land, generally a single crop, 3s. 2d. to 15s. 10d. an acre; other food grains, such as wheat, peas, etc., and linseed, 2s. 4½d. to £1, 11s. 8d. an acre.

Natural Calamities.—Sháhábád is subject to blight, flood, and drought. Blights, although they occasionally cause considerable damage, never occur on such a scale as to affect the general harvest. The Ganges annually overflows its banks; but the principal inundations result from the rising of the Son on the elevated plateau of Central India. Destructive floods have only occurred during the last few years, since a portion of the high land that formerly protected the District was washed away. About one-sixth of the total area is subject to inundation. Droughts arising from deficient rainfall, and the want of an extensive and complete system of irrigation, frequently caused distress previous to the opening of the canal works described above; and four times in the course of five years—in 1865, 1866, 1867, and 1869—drought seriously affected the harvest. The Son Canals have now, as has been stated, secured for the District immunity from future famine.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of the District is chiefly carried on by means of permanent markets in the towns, and at fairs. The most frequented of these fairs are held at Barhampur near Raghunáthpur railway station, Baxár, Zakhani, Dhusariyá, Padamanián, Gadahní, Kastar Danwar, Dhamár, Masárh, and Guptasar. The principal exports are—rice, wheat, barley, pulses, gram, oats, linsced, carraway-seed, paper, and spices; the chief imports—cleaned rice, betel-nut, tobacco, sugar, molasses, salt, pepper, cotton, iron, brass, zinc, copper, lead, tin, and betel-leaf or *pán*. The two great highways of trade to and from the District are the Ganges and the East Indian Railway. The railway runs through the District for a distance of 60 miles, from Koelwár station on the Son to Chausá on the Karamnássa, the intermediate stations being Arrah, Bihiyá, Raghunáthpur, Dumráon, and Baxár. The aggregate length of roads in the District in 1876, exclusive of village tracks, was 957 miles, maintained at a total cost of £3610, of which £2062 was derived from imperial and the remainder from local funds. There is a road cess of 1 per cent. on the land revenue of the District. The principal manufactures of Sháhábád are sugar, paper, saltpetre, blankets, coarse cotton cloth, and brass utensils. There are 58 sugar refineries (of which 42 are at Nasriganj), and the amount manufactured in 1872-73 was 965 tons, valued at £28,350. Paper is made at Sáhár and Hariharganj, both on the Son; and blankets and carpets in the Sásserám and Bhabuá Subdivisions.

Administration.—So far as can now be ascertained, it would appear that the net revenue of Sháhábád increased from £101,851 in 1790-91 to £167,277 in 1849-50, and to £233,978 in 1870-71; while the net expenditure, in like manner, increased from £5627 in 1790-91 to £25,046 in 1849-50, and to £44,158 in 1870-71. The revenue in 1877-78 was £208,504; and the civil expenditure, £33,387. The land tax forms the principal item of revenue here, as elsewhere in Bengal; and the amount collected increased from £97,508 in 1790 to £176,273 in 1877-78. The number of estates has just doubled in the same time, being 2330 in 1790, and 4669 in 1871; but the number of proprietors has increased to a much greater extent, namely, from 1289 in 1790 to 21,177 in 1870-71. In the former year, the average amount paid by each proprietor was £80, 14s., and in the latter year, £8. For police purposes, the District is divided into 11 *thánds* or police circles. In 1872, the regular police force numbered 515 officers and men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £9750. There was also a municipal police of 264 officers and men, costing £1689, and a rural police or village watch of 6185 men, costing in money or lands an estimated sum of £9539. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 6964 officers and men, giving 1 man to every 0·63 square mile of the area or to every

247 persons of the population. The estimated total cost was £20,979, equal to an average of £4, 15s. 8d. per square mile of area and nearly 3d. per head of population. The number of criminal cases conducted by the police in 1872 was 4368; percentage of final convictions, 46·87. The District has 4 jails, which contained in 1872 an average daily number of 411 prisoners. The number of Government and aided schools in Sháhábád in 1856-57 was 8, with 354 pupils; in 1870-71, there were only 13 such schools, attended by 589 pupils. Since the latter year, however, owing to the encouragement of primary education by an extension of the grant-in-aid system, the number of Government and aided schools has largely increased. In 1871-72, there were 47 schools, with 1572 pupils; and in 1872-73, there were 207, with 4173 scholars. The number of aided schools in 1877-78 was 282, attended by 7211 pupils. For administrative purposes, the District is divided into 4 Subdivisions; and for fiscal purposes, into 13 *parganás*.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Sháhábád is fairly healthy. The prevailing endemic diseases are intermittent and remittent fevers, bowel complaints, and skin diseases. Cholera and small-pox occur from time to time in an epidemic form.

Sháhábád.—*Tahsil* or Subdivision of Hardoi District, Oudh, lying between 27° 24' and 27° 47' N. lat., and between 79° 43' and 80° 21' E. long. Bounded on the north by Sháhjahánpur District in the North-Western Provinces, on the east by Muhamdi *tahsil*, on the south by Hardoi *tahsil*, and on the west by Farrukhábád District in the North-Western Provinces. Area, 539 square miles, of which 310 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 212,289, namely, 187,121 Hindus and 25,168 Muhammadans; males, 115,138, and females, 97,151; average density of population, 393 per square mile. This Subdivision comprises the 8 *parganás* of Sháhábád, Alamnagar, Piháni, Mansurnagar, Sára (North), Saromannagar, Páli, and Pachhoha.

Sháhábád.—*Parganá* of Hardoi District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Sháhjahánpur District in the North-Western Provinces; on the east by Alamnagar and Sára, the Sukheta river forming the boundary line; on the south by Saromannagar; and on the west by Pachhoha and Páli, from which it is separated by the Garra river. Area, 131 square miles, of which 81 are cultivated. Chief products—wheat, barley, *bájra*, gram, *joár*, rice, *arhar*, and sugar-cane. At the time of the revenue survey, wheat occupied about one-third of the cultivated area; barley and *bájra* each about a tenth; and gram, *joár*, and rice together about a fourth. Pop. (1869), 67,646, namely, 56,187 Hindus and 11,459 Muhammadans. Of the 143 villages comprising the *parganá*, 72 are held by Muhammadans, 25½ by Bráhmans, 21½ by Kshattriyas, 9 by Káyasths, 1 by Gosáins, 1 by Europeans, and 13 by

the Government. The varieties of tenure are—*tálukdári*, 26 villages; *samindári*, 82; and *pattidári*, 35. Government land revenue, £9342, equal to an average of 3s. 7½d. per cultivated acre, or 2s. 2¾d. per acre of total area. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway runs through the *parganá*, with a station near Sháhábád town. The country was originally in the hands of the Thatheras, whose chief settlement seems to have been at and around Angni Khera, on the site of Sháhábád town. They are said to have been dispossessed in the 8th century A.D. by a band of Bráhmans, who were on a pilgrimage from Benares to Hardwár. The Bráhmans retained possession of Angni Khera and the surrounding country till the reign of Aurangzeb, when, having plundered a convoy of treasure on its way to Delhi, a retaliatory expedition was sent out under an Afghán chief, Diler Khán, who surprised the Bráhmans at a bathing festival, slew them, and took possession of their lands, which were confirmed to them by the Delhi Emperor. Diler Khán founded the town of Sháhábád on the old site of Angni Khera, which he filled with his Afghán kinsmen and troops, assigning them jungle grants in the neighbourhood. Diler Khán's family gradually extended their possessions, acquiring, either by purchase, mortgage, fraud, or force, every village in the *parganá*, which they held as proprietors till some fifty or sixty years ago, when the family began to decay and the estate to fall to pieces. The old proprietors in some cases succeeded in recovering possession of their villages, mostly by purchase from the Nawáb's family. The descendants of Diler Khán, however, still hold possession of more than one-half of the *parganá*.

Sháhábád.—Town in Hardoi District, and headquarters of Sháhábád *tahsil* and *parganá*; situated on the road from Lucknow to Sháh-jahánpur, 15 miles from the latter town, in lat. 27° 38' 25" N., and long. 79° 59' 5" E. The most populous town in the District, and the fourth largest in the Province. Pop. (1869) 18,254, including 10,741 Hindus and 7540 Muhammadans, residing in 985 masonry and 3668 mud-built houses. The town is divided into several wards or *mahallas*, named for the most part after the followers and companions in arms of the founder, Diler Khán. It has declined in importance during the past hundred years, the inhabitants dating the decay from the decline of the Delhi Empire, and the rise of Oudh to independence. The present population is said to be only one-third of what it was formerly. Tieffenthaler describes Sháhábád, about 1770 A.D., as 'of considerable circuit, and nearly in the middle is a palace of brick strengthened with towers like a fortress (the Bari Deorhi constructed by Diler Khán), with a vestibule and spacious covered colonnade. Most of the houses are of brick, and there is a fine mosque built of the same material, and enclosed by a wall. The town extends a mile from north

to south, its breadth is something less, but of its flourishing state little remains.' When visited by Tennant in 1799, it was an 'expanse of ruins, 'that appeared in the form of hills, and broken, crumbling to dust.' Heber found it in 1824 'a considerable town, or almost city, with the remains of fortifications and many large houses.' Sháhábád is connected with Sháhjahánpur, Páli, Sándi, Hardoi, and Piháni by unmetalled roads; it is also a station on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. The Subdivisional courts and police station are placed in the enclosure of the Jamá Masjid, a mosque built by Diler Khán. Anglo-vernacular school, dispensary, and *sardí* (travellers' rest-house). No trade or manufacture of importance. Several markets are held in the different wards.

The following account of Sháhábád in 1850 is quoted from Sir W. Sleeman's *Tour through Oudh*, vol. ii. pp. 46-47; it is interesting as giving the origin of the chronic ill-feeling that exists between the Muhammadans and Hindus—which broke out into a riot at the *Muharram* festival of 1868:—'Sháhábád is a very ancient and large town, occupied chiefly by Pathán Musalmáns, who are a very turbulent and fanatical set of fellows. Subsukh Rái, a Hindu, and the most respectable merchant in the District, resided here, and for some time consented to officiate as the deputy of poor old Háfiz Abdullá for the management of the town, where his influence was great. He had lent a good deal of money to the heads of some of the Pathán families of the town; but finding few of them disposed to repay, he was last year obliged to refuse further loans. They determined to take advantage of the coming *Muharram* festival to revenge the affront, as men commonly do who live among such a fanatical community. The *tazias* are commonly taken up and carried in procession ten days after the new moon is first seen at any place where they are made; but in Oudh, all go by the day in which the moon is seen from the capital of Lucknow. As soon as she is seen at Lucknow, the king issues an order throughout his dominions for the *tazias* to be taken in procession ten days after. The moon was this year, in November, first seen on the 30th of the month at Lucknow; but at Sháhábád, where the sky is generally clearer, she had been seen on the 29th. The men to whom Subsukh Rái had refused further loans determined to take advantage of this incident to wreak their vengeance; and when the deputy promulgated the king's order for the *tazias* to be taken in procession ten days after the 30th, they instigated all the Muhammadans of the town to insist upon taking them out ten days after the 29th, and persuaded them that the order had been fabricated or altered by the malice of their Hindu deputy to insult their religious feelings. They were taken out accordingly; and having to pass the house of Subsukh Rái, when their excitement or spirit of religious fervour had reached the

highest pitch, they there put them down, broke open the doors, entered in a crowd, and plundered it of all the property they could find, amounting to about 70,000 rupees. Subsukh Rái was obliged to get out with his family at a back door, and run for his life. He went to Sháhjahánpur, in our territory, and put himself under the protection of the Magistrate. Not content with all this, they built a small miniature mosque at the door with some loose bricks, so that no one could go either out or in without the risk of knocking it down, or so injuring this mock mosque as to rouse, or enable the evil-minded to rouse, the whole Muhammadan population against the offender. Poor Subsukh Rái has been utterly ruined, and ever since seeking in vain for redress. The Government is neither disposed nor able to afford it, and the poor boy who has now succeeded his learned father in the contract is helpless. The little mock mosque of uncemented bricks still stands as a monument of the insolence of the Muhammadan population, and the weakness and apathy of the Oudh Government.'

Sháhábád.—Municipal town in Ambála (Umballa) District, Punjab. Lat. 30° 10' N., long. 76° 55' E.; pop. (1868), 11,678, consisting of 4125 Hindus, 6520 Muhammadans, 1028 Sikhs, and 5 Christians. Founded by one of the followers of Alá-ud-dín Ghori about 1086 A.D. Well built of brick, and ornamented by several handsome mansions of Sikh *sardárs*. Important Sikh family, descended from Karm Sinh, immigrated hither in 1759. Government resumed half the estate on failure of heirs in 1863; the remainder passed to two cousins, representatives of another branch of the family. Inhabitants principally engaged in agriculture; no manufactures; local grain trade. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £261, or 5½d. per head of population (11,653) within municipal limits.

Sháhábád.—Town in Kashmír (Cashmere) State, Punjab. Lat. 33° 32' N., long. 75° 16' E. Thornton states that it was a favourite residence of the early Mughal Emperors, but now suffered to fall into decay. Stands in the midst of a fruitful and picturesque valley, famous for producing the finest wheat in Kashmír. *Bázár*, with a few shops. Elevation above sea level, 5600 feet.

Sháhábázár.—Town in Dhárwár District, Bombay. Pop. (1872), 6268.

Sháháda.—Chief town of the Sháháda Subdivision, Khándesh District, Bombay; situated 48 miles north-west of Dhulia. Together with Kukdel, it contained in 1872 a population of 5212. It is a municipal town, with an average income of about £248. Post office.

Sháhápur.—Town in Súngli, one of the Southern Marhattá States, Bombay. Lat. 15° 50' 5" N., long. 74° 33' 56" E.; pop. (1872), 11,265.

Sháhbandar.—Sub-District of Karáchi District, Sind, lying between 23° 35' and 25° N. lat., and between 67° 20' and 68° 48' E. long.

Area, 3378 square miles; pop. (1872), 103,887, but allowing for recent transfers, 102,936, including 90,349 Muhammadans and 12,575 Hindus.

Sháhbandar consists mainly of a flat, alluvial plain, forming part of the delta of the Indus, and cut up by numerous creeks, the chief of which are the Kori channel (which is believed to have been formerly a mouth of the Eastern Nára), and the Pinyári or Sir river. Large tracts in this Division are covered with mangrove and tamarisk jungle. The south-western portion is annually inundated, and the belt bordering the sea affords excellent grazing ground for large herds of buffaloes. Number of canals in Sháhbandar, 152, with an aggregate length of about 800 miles. There are 13 Government forests, with an area of 38,287 acres. Game and fish abound. The principal crops of the Sub-District are rice, occupying 76 per cent. of the total cultivated area, and *bájra*, 13 per cent. The average yield per acre of cleaned rice on good land is about 560 lbs. Wheat, cotton, tobacco, and sugar-cane are also grown. The area of land held in *jágr*, or revenue-free, is estimated at 45,000 acres. The annual value of the imports, which are principally cloth, grain, drugs, oil, *ghi*, sugar, tobacco, pepper, betel-nut, and copper and brass vessels, is estimated at about £35,000; and the exports, mainly agricultural produce, at £70,000. The manufactures comprise salt, coarse blankets, and leathern and iron goods. Thirteen fairs. Aggregate length of roads, 350 miles; number of ferries, 34.

In 1873-74, the total revenue of Sháhbandar Sub-District amounted to £34,530, of which £30,562 was derived from imperial and £3968 from local sources. The chief items are the land tax, *abhári* or excise, and stamp duties. Total number of police, 160. Subordinate civil court at Mirpur Batoro. There are 8 municipal towns, viz. Mirpur Batoro, Mugalbhin (Mogul Bim), Sháhbandar, Sujáwal, Bano, Chuhan Jamáli, Daro, and Gungáni. Subordinate jails at Mirpur Batoro, Belo, Mugalbhin, and Sháhbandar. Number of Government schools, 3, with a total of 109 pupils. Prevalent diseases, intermittent fevers. Dispensary at Mirpur Batoro.

Sháhbandar.—*Táluk* of the Sháhbandar Sub-District, Karáchi District, Sind. Area, 699 square miles; pop. (1872), 21,046. Gross revenue (1873-74), £9385.

Sháhbandar (*King's Port*).—Chief town of the *táluk* of the same name in Sháhbandar Sub-District, Karáchi, Sind; situated in lat. 24° 10' N., and long. 67° 56' E., in the delta of the Indus, 30 miles south-west of Mugalbhin, and 33 miles south of Sujáwal. Pop. (1872), 1203, including 469 Muhammadans and 732 Hindus. Sháhbandar stood formerly on the east bank of the Malir, one of the mouths of the Indus, but it is at present 10 miles distant from the nearest point of

the river. The great salt waste commences about a mile to the south-east of the town, and on its westward side are extensive jungles of long *bin* grass. It was to Sháhbandar that the English factory was removed from Aurangábád when this latter place was deserted by the Indus; and previous to the abandonment of the factory in 1775, it supported an establishment of 14 vessels for the navigation of the river. The disastrous flood which occurred about 1819 caused material changes in the lower part of the Indus, and hastened the decay of Sháhbandar, which is now an insignificant village. Carless states that the native rulers of Sind had a fleet of 15 ships stationed here. Vessels entered by the Richal, the only accessible mouth, and passing into the Hajámro through what is now the Khedewári creek, ascended that stream to about 10 miles above Ghorebári, where it joined the Malir. Sháhbandar is the headquarters of a *múkhtiárkár* and of a *táppáddár*; police *thánd* or circle, with a force of 13 men. Municipal revenue (1874), £109.

Sháhdádpur.—*Táluk* of the Hála Sub-District, Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District, Sind. Area, 765 square miles; pop. (1872), 55,707. Gross revenue (1873-74), £10,868.

Sháhdádpur.—Chief town of Sháhdádpur *táluk*, Haidarábád District, Sind; situated in lat. 25° 56' N., and long. 68° 40' E., on the Jámwah Canal, 15 miles north-east of Hála, and 40 miles north-east of Haidarábád city. Pop. (1872), 2232, including 756 Muhammadans and 1250 Hindus. Seat of a subordinate judge's court, and of a *múkhtiárkár's* office, with the usual public buildings. Local trade in grain, oil-seeds, sugar, and cloth, valued at £6000; transit trade in *bájra*, wheat, rice, and cotton, valued at about £10,000. Chief manufacture, oil. Sháhdádpur is said to have been founded two centuries ago by one Mír Sháhdád.

Sháh Dheri.—Village and ruins in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab.—*See* DERI SHAHAN.

Sháhdra.—Village in Lahore District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 4370. Stands in lat. 31° 40' N., and long. 74° 20' E., on the west bank of the Rávi, nearly opposite Lahore city. Contains the mausoleum of Jahángír and his wife Núr Ján, and the tomb of Asaf Khán, brother of the empress, in a beautiful garden, a favourite resort of the residents of Lahore. The Sikhs committed great depredations upon all the buildings, carrying off much of the marble facings and enamelled work to decorate their own temple at Amritsar (Umritsur). Sháhdra is at present occupied by a large colony of Europeans in connection with the works of the Punjab Northern State Railway.

Sháhdwára.—Town in Meerut (Míráth) District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 7257, consisting of 5683 Hindus and 1574 Muhammadans. Situated in lat. 28° 40' 5" N., and long. 77° 20' 10" E.,

near the left bank of the Eastern Jumna Canal, about 31 miles south-west of Meerut city. Founded by the Emperor Sháh Jahán, who gave it its present name of 'Royal Gate,' and designed it as an emporium for the supply of grain to his troops. Sacked by Suráj Mall Ját, of Bhartpur, and plundered by the soldiers of Ahmad Sháh Duráni just before the battle of Páñipat. Manufacture of sweetmeats. Large trade in shoes and leather; considerable sugar refineries. Police station, post office. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £583; from taxes, £262, or 8½d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Sháhganj.—Town in Jaunpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. $26^{\circ} 3' 30''$ N., long. $82^{\circ} 41' 30''$ E.

Sháhganj (or *Mukimpur*).—Town in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh; situated about 10 miles from Faizábád town. Founded by a Mughal on the village land of Mukimpur; seized by Rájá Darshan Sinh, whose fort and residence became celebrated during the Mutiny of 1857. Pop. (1869), 3744, consisting of 3077 Hindus and 667 Muhammadans. Mosque, 2 temples, and vernacular school.

Sháhgarh.—Chief town of a tract bearing the same name in Ságár (Saugor) District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. $24^{\circ} 19'$ N., and long. 79° E., 40 miles north-east of Ságár town. Originally part of the Gond kingdom of Mándla, it continued till 1857 to be the headquarters of an independent chief of ancient lineage. (*See SAGAR DISTRICT.*) Sháhgarh stands at the foot of a lofty hill range, with jungle on nearly every side. The small fort, now in ruins, on the east of the village, contained the Rájá's palace. At the villages of Báretá, Amarmau, Hirápúr, and Tigorá, all in the north of the tract, iron-ore is smelted and sent to Cawnpore. Markets are held every Tuesday and Saturday; and Sháhgarh has a Government boys' school, girls' school, and dispensary.

Sháhi.—Canal in the Punjab.—*See HASLI.*

Sháhjahánpur.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between $27^{\circ} 35'$ and $28^{\circ} 28' 15''$ N. lat., and between $79^{\circ} 23'$ and $80^{\circ} 25' 45''$ E. long. Area, according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1877-78, 1744 square miles; population (according to the same authority), 949,471 souls. Sháhjahánpur forms the easternmost District of the Rohilkhand Division. It is bounded on the north by Bareilly (Bareli), on the east by the Oudh Districts of Hardoi and Kheri, on the south by the Ganges, and on the west by Budáun and Bareilly (Bareli). The administrative headquarters are at the city of SHAHJAHANPUR.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Sháhjahánpur consists of a long and narrow tract, running upward from the Ganges towards the Himálayas, nearly at right angles to the river system of the Rohilkhand plain. Hence its natural features depend almost entirely upon the various streams which have cut themselves deep channels

through the alluvial soil of the Gangetic basin. The north-eastern corner, beyond the Gumti, presents an appearance not unlike that of the *tardi* or damp submontane belt. A large area still remains under forest, or lies otherwise waste. A scanty population inhabits this unhealthy and malarious tract; but water rises close to the surface, and the natural fertility of the soil is only marred by the feverish exhalations. The next section, between the Gumti and the Khanaut, passes from a rather wild and unhealthy northern region to a densely inhabited strip along the southern river, consisting of a productive loam, well cultivated with sugar-cane and other remunerative crops. The Khanaut falls into the Deoha just below Sháhjahánpur; and the triangle enclosed between the confluent streams, though fertile in the immediate neighbourhood of their valleys, consists of a thinly peopled country, much overgrown with thorn and *dhák* jungle. The section between the Deoha and the Garái comprises much marshy land; but south of the latter river, the country rises in a sandy ridge, till it reaches the valley of the Rám-ganga, through which the stream wanders in changing courses, destroying and re-forming its banks with great rapidity. Thence to the Ganges stretches a continuous lowland, consisting of marshy patches, alternating with a stiff clay soil, and requiring irrigation in parts. Cultivation is here less easy and less remunerative. The Rám-ganga forms the main waterway of the District, being navigable as far as Kola Ghát, near Jalálábád, whence considerable quantities of cereals and pulses are shipped in country boats by Cawnpore traders for the Ganges ports. A few swampy lakes (*jháls*) in the lower portions of the District afford irrigation for the spring crops in their neighbourhood. No large pasture grounds exist anywhere, but cattle are sent in large herds from the northern *parganás* to graze in Nepál during the cold weather, returning again at the commencement of the rains.

History.—Sháhjahánpur possesses little separate history of its own before the annexation by the British in 1801. During the early Musalmán times, it always formed part of Kather proper, nearly the whole of its *parganás* lying east of the Rám-ganga; and it was then included under the government of Budáun. Sháhjahánpur town was founded in the reign of Sháh Jahán by Nawáb Bahádúr Khán, a Pathán, who named it in honour of the Emperor. About 1720, Alí Muhammad Khán, who had risen into power at the head of his Rohillá clansmen, defeated the Governors of Bareilly (Bareli) and Morádábád, and himself assumed the rule of those two Districts, together with Sháhjahánpur. On his death in 1751, Háfiz Rahmat Khán, the guardian of his sons, became leader of the Rohillás, and defeated the imperial troops sent against him. Sháhjahánpur remained under the Bareilly authorities till 1774, when the Nawáb Wazír of Oudh overran Rohilkhand with

the aid of Warren Hastings. The Rohillás, however, had never gained complete control over the eastern portion of Sháhjahánpur District, though their power was firmly established in the west. The Gaur or Kathariya Thákurs also retained their independence among the wild wastes of the north. Sháhjahánpur, indeed, lying on the border between Oudh and Rohilkhand, formed a sort of debateable land between the two Provinces; but the sympathies and connections of the Sháhjahánpur Patháns lay always with Oudh rather than with the Rohillás. The Nawáb Wazírs held Rohilkhand from 1774 till 1801, when it was ceded to the English by the treaty of Lál Dháng.

Thenceforward, our rule was never disturbed until the Mutiny, although the District bordered upon the most turbulent part of Oudh. In 1857, however, Sháhjahánpur became the scene of open rebellion. The news of the Meerut (Mírath) outbreak arrived on the 15th of May; but all remained quiet till the 25th, when the sepoy informed their officers that the mob intended to plunder the treasury. Precautions were taken against such an attempt; but on the 31st, while most of the officers, civil and military, were at church, some of the sepoy forced their way into the building and attacked them. Three Europeans were shot down at once; the remainder closed the doors, and aided by their servants, together with a hundred faithful sepoy, held the church against the mutineers. The other officers then joined them, and the whole party escaped, first to Pawáyan, and afterwards to Muhamdi. The mutineers burnt the station, plundered the treasury, and made their way to the centre of local disaffection at Bareilly. A rebel Government, under Kádír Ali Khán, was proclaimed on the 1st of June. On the 18th, Ghulám Kádír Khán, the hereditary Nawáb of Sháhjahánpur, passed through on his way to Bareilly, where he was appointed Názim of Sháhjahánpur by Khán Bahádúr Khán. On the 23rd, the Nawáb returned to his titular post, and superseded Kádír Ali. He remained in power from June 1857 till January 1858, when our troops took Fatehgarh. The Nawáb of Fatehgarh and Firoz Sháh then fled to Sháhjahánpur, and on to Bareilly. After the fall of Lucknow, the Nána Sáhib also fled to Sháhjahánpur, but remained only ten days, and proceeded onward to Bareilly. In January, the Nawáb put to death Hámid Hassan Khán, Deputy Collector, and Muhammad Hassan, subordinate judge, for corresponding with the English. On the 30th of April 1858, the British force under Lord Clyde reached Sháhjahánpur. The rebels fled to Muhamdi, and the British went on to Bareilly on the 2nd of May, leaving only a small detachment to guard the station. The rebels then assembled once more, and besieged our troops for nine days; but Brigadier Jones' column relieved them on the 12th, and authority was then finally re-established.

Population.—The Census of 1853 returned the total number of

inhabitants at 986,096 persons. That of 1865 showed an increase to the number of 1,018,117, being a gain of 32,021 persons, or 3·2 per cent. The Census of 1872 gave the population as 949,579, showing an apparent decrease of 68,538 persons, or 7·2 per cent., since 1865; and of 36,517 persons, or 3·8 per cent., in the whole nineteen years. These results, however, are very fallacious when compared with the area, which increased by 20 square miles in the first twelve years, and decreased by 605 square miles, or 35·1 per cent., in the last seven years, owing to the transfer of Purnapur *parganá* to Bareilly District. The real rate of increase may best be seen from the figures representing the density of population, which amounted to 427 persons per square mile in 1853, to 437 in 1865, and to 551 in 1872. But here again it must be borne in mind that the *parganá* transferred to Bareilly, lying close to the foot of the Himálayas in the pestilential *tardi*, had a much sparser population than any other portion of the District. Although the area of the District is returned in the Administration Report for 1877-78 at 1744 square miles and the population at 949,471, the Census of 1872 was taken as extending over an area of 1723 square miles, and disclosed a population of 949,579, distributed among 2180 villages or townships, and inhabiting 188,958 houses. From these data the following averages, taken from the Census Report, may be deduced:—Persons per square mile, 551; villages per square mile, 1·3; houses per square mile, 109; persons per village, 436; persons per house, 5. Classified according to sex, there were (exclusive of non-Asiatics)—males, 511,136; females, 438,235: proportion of males, 54·1 per cent. Classified according to age, there were (with the same omission), under 12 years—males, 176,662; females, 155,118; total children, 331,780, or 35·99 per cent. of the whole native population: above 12 years—males, 334,474; females, 283,217; total adults, 617,691, or 64·01 per cent. of the whole native population. As regards religious distinctions, the Hindus numbered 822,576, or 86·6 per cent., and the Muhammadans 126,599, or 13·4 per cent. The District also contained 296 Christians. As regards ethnical and caste distinctions, Bráhmans numbered 63,120; Rájputs, 69,222; Baniyas, 14,600; Ahírs, 65,232; Chamárs, 109,448; Káyasths, 12,323; and Kurmis, 28,248. Among the Muhammadans, 13,773 ranked as Shaikhs, 3325 Sayyids, 1167 Mughals, and 41,564 Patháns. In the central portion of the District, the people are well off, and inhabit a richly cultivated plain, scarcely inferior to that of the Doáb. In the extreme north, however, agriculture is backward, waste tracts are numerous, and the people are poor and miserable, like their neighbours in the *tardi*. In the south, also, where the swampy tract between the Rámanga and the Ganges alternates with stretches of stiff clay, the condition of the agricultural classes is much less prosperous. The

District contains 7 towns with a population exceeding 5000, namely—SHAHJAHANPUR, 72,140; PAWAYAN, 6109; TILHAR, 5317; HINDUPATTI, 6009; JALALABAD, 7129; MIRANPUR KATRA, 6529; and KANT, 5006. Most of these towns are of quite modern origin, dating back no more than 200 years, while all the older cities have fallen into utter ruin.

Agriculture.—The course of tillage follows the ordinary rule of the North-Western Provinces, consisting of the *khari* or autumn harvest—chief staples, cotton, rice, *bajra*, and *joar*; and the *rabi* or spring harvest, including wheat, barley, oats, vetch, and peas. Sugar-cane is grown in the low-lying lands, and Indian corn on ground capable of bearing two crops a year. Manure is employed where obtainable, but the poverty of the cultivators seldom permits them to let their land lie fallow. The land tenures belong to the standard types of the Province. The country, however, has been too recently occupied to have acquired such complicated holdings or undergone such minute subdivision as in the Lower Doab. The horned cattle of the District are small and weak, so that good draught oxen can only be obtained by importation from beyond the Ganges. Government has made several attempts to improve the breed, but the natives show no disposition to avail themselves of the facilities offered to them. Neither wages nor prices have exhibited much tendency to rise of late years; but whatever change has taken place has been in favour of the labouring classes. Smiths received 4½d. per diem in 1852, and 6d. in 1872; labourers obtained 2½d. at the former date, and 3d. at the latter. Prices of food grains ruled as follows in 1876:—Wheat, 28 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. per cwt.; *bajra*, 40 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 10d. per cwt.; rice, 8 *sers* per rupee, or 14s. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Sháhjahánpur suffers from drought and famine, though its proximity to the hills sometimes saves it from the worst extremities to which neighbouring Districts are exposed. The great famine of 1783-84, though severely felt in Rohilkhand, did not press so heavily upon this Division as upon Agra and the south-west. In 1803-04, two years after the cession, rain completely failed for the autumn crops. In 1825-26, drought again occurred, but did not bring about famine in the strictest sense. In 1837-38, the autumn rains failed, but a slight fall in February saved the harvest in part, though great dearth of grain ensued. The famine of 1860-61 was severely felt throughout Rohilkhand, and Sháhjahánpur suffered like its neighbours, though it escaped the extreme misery which fell upon the contiguous District of Budáun.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway is the main channel for the commerce of Sháhjahánpur. It enters the District near Kahilia, and leaves it near Fatehganj, after a course

of 28 miles within its limits. There are stations at Kahilia, Rosa Junction, Sháhjahánpur, Tilhar, and Miranpur Katra. Three metalled roads also form great arteries of traffic, namely, that from Pawáyan through Sháhjahánpur to Jalálábád; from Lucknow to Bareilly *via* Sháhjahánpur and Tilhar; and from Fatehgarh through Jalálábád to Miranpur Katra. Cereals and pulses are carried down the Rámghanga by Cawnpore traders, who send their boats to Kolaghát, near Jalálábád. Grain and raw sugar are conveyed on the Deoha from Sháhjahánpur. Some through traffic exists from Pilibhít, where boats are built and despatched down stream, laden with produce. A considerable quantity of timber is also floated down from Pilibhít. Sugar, the chief export of the District, formerly went by cart to Agra and other trans-Jumna marts, salt and cotton being imported in return; but most of this traffic now finds an outlet by the railway, which also conveys the cotton from Chandausi, the chief market for that staple in Rohilkhand. European goods and metals form the main items of import trade. The principal manufacture under European superintendence is that of sugar, started thirty years ago at the Rosa factory, near Sháhjahánpur, by Messrs. Carew & Co. The factory was destroyed during the Mutiny, but was restored, and has been continued ever since. The annual value of the out-turn amounts to about £60,000; and the concern employs 4 Europeans, 1000 labourers, and 5000 carts. Rum is also distilled and sold to the Commissariat Department to a large amount.

Administration.—Sháhjahánpur is the seat of a Civil and Sessions Judge, whose civil jurisdiction extends over the whole District, and includes also the four eastern *parganás* of Budáun. He holds criminal sessions at Budáun town alternately with the Judge of Bareilly. The District staff comprises a Collector-Magistrate, a Joint Magistrate, Assistant Magistrate, and an uncovenanted Deputy Magistrate, besides a sub-deputy opium agent, and the usual fiscal, medical, and constabulary officials. The total amount of revenue, imperial, municipal, and local, raised in the District in 1876 amounted to £191,508, or 3s. 10½d. per head of the population. Of this sum, the land tax contributed £118,442. In the year 1875, the regular police force consisted of 672 officers and men, being at the rate of 1 policeman to every 3·16 square miles and to every 1412 of the population; the total cost was £7991, or £3, 8s. per square mile and 2d. per head of population. The District jail at Sháhjahánpur contained during the same year a daily average of 332 prisoners, of whom 12 were females. The average cost per head amounted to £3, 7s. 5½d., and the average earnings of each prisoner to 8s. Postal communication is carried on by 9 imperial and 10 local post offices, and the telegraph is in operation at all the stations on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. The educa-

tional returns in 1875 showed a total of 202 schools, with a roll of 6218 pupils; being at the rate of 1 school to every 8·52 square miles, and 6·5 pupils to every thousand of the population. Thirteen of these were girls' schools. The total expenditure on education was returned at £4136, of which £1631 was provided from the Provincial treasury and £2505 from local sources. Government maintains 5 *tahsili* schools, with a roll of 5184 pupils, at an average cost of 12s. 2d. per head. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is subdivided into 4 *tahsils* and 12 *pargands*. It contained in 1875-76 two municipalities, SHAHJAHANPUR and TILHAR, with an aggregate revenue of £8507; from taxes, £6665, or 1s. 4½d. per head of the population (98,312) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Sháhjahánpur is much damper than that of the Upper Doáb, and somewhat more so than the other portions of the Rohilkhand plain. Six weeks seldom pass at any time of the year without a fall of rain; and the prevailing wind sets easterly from the cloudy summits of the Himálayas. The heat during the hot months does not equal that of the neighbouring Districts, and warm winds seldom blow for more than five or six days in each year. Except in May and June, the country has a fresh and green aspect, very unlike the parched brown stretches of the Doáb. The average rainfall for the ten years ending 1873 amounted to 37 inches, the maximum during that period being 54·5 inches in 1867, and the minimum 18·3 inches in 1868. Except in the extreme north, near the *tardái*, the climate generally is healthy; but fever and ague prevail in that portion of the District every spring and autumn. The valley of the Sot is also very malarious. The total number of deaths reported in 1875 was 23,844, or 25·11 per thousand of the population. The District contains 5 medical dispensaries—at Sháhjahánpur, Katra, Gularia, Jalálábád, and Tilhar. In 1875, they afforded relief to 19,002 persons, of whom 936 were in-door patients.

Sháhjahánpur.—South-eastern *tahsil* of Sháhjahánpur District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 401 square miles, of which 286 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 279,083; land revenue, £29,073; total Government revenue, £31,980; rental paid by cultivators, £52,375.

Sháhjahánpur.—Municipal town and administrative headquarters of Sháhjahánpur District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 72,140, including 34,511 Hindus and 37,538 Muhammadans. Lies in lat. 27° 52' 55" N., and long. 79° 56' 50" E.; on the left bank of the river Deoha, crowning the high ground just above its junction with the Khanaut. An old fort overhangs the confluence; and a large masonry bridge, built by Hakím Mehndi Alí, spans the smaller river. The city was founded during the reign of Sháh Jahán by Nawáb Bahádur Khán, a Pathán. Scene of an outbreak during the Mutiny of 1857 (see

SHAHJAHANPUR DISTRICT). Considerable export of cereals, pulses, and sugar. Large out-turn of sugar and rum from the Rosa factory, near the city, the property of Messrs. Carew & Co. Several stately old mosques, now somewhat out of repair. Municipal revenue, in 1875-76, £7118; from taxes, £5707, or 1s. 5½d. per head of population (79,487) within municipal limits.

Shah-ki-dheri.—Village and ruins in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab.—*See* DERI SHAHAN.

Sháhlímar.—Gardens and pleasure-ground in Lahore District, Punjab; situated in the village of Bágampur, 5 miles east of Lahore city. Lat. 31° 35' N., long. 74° 23' E. Laid out by Ali Mardan Khán, the celebrated engineer of Sháh Jahán, in imitation of the garden planned by Jahángir at the sources of the Jhelum (Jhílám), in Kashmír (Cashmere). The buildings fell into ruin during the latter period of the Mughal Empire, but were restored by Ranjit Sinh, who substituted stucco for the original marble of the central pavilion.

Sháhpur.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 31° 32' and 32° 42' N. lat., and between 71° 37' and 73° 21' E. long. Area, according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1879, 4700 square miles; population (1868), 368,796 souls. Sháhpur forms the southernmost District of the Ráwal Pindi Division. It is bounded on the north by the District of Jhelum (Jhílám), on the east by Gujrát and the river Chenáb, on the south by Jhang, and on the west and north-west by Derá Ismáíl Khán and Bannu (Bunnoo). The administrative headquarters are at the small town of SHAHPUR on the Jhelum river, but BHERA is the largest place in the District.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Sháhpur consists of an irregular block of country, artificially demarcated for administrative purposes, and stretching from the western bank of the Chenáb, across the valley of the Jhelum, far into the heart of the Sind Ságar Doáb, and up to the centre of the Salt Range. On either side of the Jhelum, which divides the District into two nearly equal portions, lie wide upland plains, utterly barren or covered only with low brushwood. Nearly 90 per cent. of the area still remains untouched by the hand of man. But although so large a portion of the surface consists of native desert, considerable variety exists in the aspect of the country. Beginning from the south-eastern border, the first well-marked natural tract comprises the lowlands of the Chenáb, where percolation from the river spreads fertility over a long belt about 10 or 12 miles in width, along the whole of its course. Above these fruitful and well-watered levels, the *bár* or central tableland of the Jetch Doáb stretches in a monotonous undulating waste of desert or jungle to the valley of the Jhelum. The soil of this upland is naturally good; but the impossibility of obtaining water precludes all hope of cultivation, except in a

few hollow basins, where the crops depend upon the capricious rainfall for their whole supply. Numerous herds of cattle, however, roam at will over the prairie jungles, and obtain abundant pasturage from the luxuriant carpet of grass which covers the surface after the rains. A second zone of cultivation fringes either bank of the Jhelum, though not extending so far inland as on the Chenáb. The lowland strips on both sides of the Jetch Doáb are popularly divided into the *hethar*, or alluvial tract immediately bordering the river, and the *nakka*, or slope just beyond the range of percolation. The former contains the most prosperous villages, and is covered throughout its entire length by one unbroken sheet of grain for the *rabi* or spring harvest, without the necessity for artificial irrigation; the latter depends upon the water supply from wells, and has smaller and more straggling villages, scattered at wide distances from one another. Beyond the Jhelum valley rises a second tableland, the *thal* of the Sind Ságar Doáb, a far more forbidding and desert expanse than the *bár*. Northward, a hard level plain, impregnated in places with salt, and almost devoid of vegetation, stretches away monotonously to the foot of the Salt Range. To the east and south, a sandy plateau runs onward till it merges in the utter desert of Derá Ismáíl Khán. The extreme southern portion resembles an angry sea of sand, tossed into wave-like hillocks, between which lie undulating troughs of short coarse grass. The north is occupied by a part of the Salt Range, which runs right across the Doáb, and rises to its greatest height in Mount Sakeswar, 5000 feet above sea level. It consists of two divergent chains, which unite again at either end, and enclose a number of rock-bound alluvial basins, interspersed with picturesque lakes. Little patches of rich cultivation are found amid the nooks and valleys of the range, rendered fruitful by the fresh alluvial *detritus* from the surrounding peaks, and watered by the comparatively abundant rainfall of the hill tract. The southern face of the range presents a bold mass of broken and rugged cliffs, whose distorted strata and huge detached rocks give an air of great sublimity to the scenery. Many torrents flow through the gorges on its side, and spread fertility over a narrow strip of lowland at the base, known as the *mohár*. Thence an intermediate belt of pasture land, the *danda*, leads on imperceptibly to the wild sandy waste of the *thal*. Tigers, leopards, and wolves frequent the Salt Range, while small game and antelope abound among the thick jungle of the *bár*.

History.—Though little definite information can be recovered with regard to the annals of Sháhpur District prior to the decline of the Mughal dynasty, the numerous remains studded about the *bár* clearly prove that at some remote period the whole country between the Chenáb and the Jhelum consisted of a flourishing and well-watered

agricultural plain. Mounds of earth, covered with fragments of brick or pottery, lie scattered over the whole tableland, and mark the ancient sites of towns and villages in a tract now only inhabited by half-savage pastoral tribes. The historians of Alexander speak of the country as 'teeming with population;' and local tradition affirms that so late as the time of Akbar, great prosperity extended over the entire *bêr*. The present desert condition of the plateau may perhaps be referred to a gradual depression of the water level. But the dawn of authentic history in Shâhpur extends no further back than the reign of Muhammad Shâh, when Rájá Salámat Rái, a Rájput of the Anand tribe, administered Bhera and the surrounding country; while Khusháb was managed by Nawáb Ahmadyár Khán, and the south-eastern tract along the Chenáb formed part of the territories under the charge of Mahárájá Kaura Mall, Governor of Múltán. At the same time, the *thal* was included among the dominions of the Baluch families of DERA GHAZI KHAN and DERA ISMAIL KHAN. During the anarchic period which succeeded the disruption of the Mughal Empire, even this remote region became the scene of Síkh and Afghán incursions. In the year 1757, a force under Núr-ud-dín Bamizái, despatched by Ahmad Shâh Duráni, to assist his son Timúr in repelling the Marhattás, crossed the Jhelum at Khusháb, marched up the left bank of the river, and laid waste the three largest towns of the District. Bhera and Miáni (Meeanee) rose again from their ruins; but only the foundations of Chak Sátu now mark its former site. About the same time, by the death of Nawáb Ahmadyár Khán, Khusháb also passed into the hands of Rájá Salámat Rái. Shortly after, however, Abbás Khán, a Khattak, who held Pind Dádan Khán and the Salt Range for Ahmad Shâh, treacherously put the Rájá to death, and seized upon Bhera. But Abbás Khán was himself thrown into prison as a revenue defaulter; and Fateh Sinh, nephew of Salámat Rái, then recovered his uncle's dominions. After the final success of the Síkhs against Ahmad Shâh in 1763, Chattar Sinh of the Sukarchakia *misl* or confederacy overran the whole Salt Range, while the Bhangí chieftains parcelled out among themselves the country between those hills and the Chenáb. Meanwhile, the Muhammadan rulers of Sahiwál, Mitha Tiwána, and Khusháb had assumed independence, and managed, though hard pressed, to resist the encroachments of the Síkhs. The succeeding period was one of constant anarchy, aggressive warfare, and territorial changes among the petty princes of the District, only checked by the gradual rise of Mahá Sinh, and his son, the great Mahárájá Ranjít Sinh. The former made himself master of Miáni in 1783; and the latter succeeded in annexing Bhera in 1803. Six years later, Ranjít Sinh turned his arms against the Baluch chieftains of Sahiwál and Khusháb, whom he overcame by combined force and treachery. At

the same time, he swallowed up certain smaller domains in the same neighbourhood; and in 1810, effected the conquest of all the country subject to the Sial chiefs of Jhang. In 1816, the conqueror turned his attention to the Málíks of Mitha Tiwána. The Muhammadan chief retired to Nurpur, in the heart of the *thal*, hoping that the scarcity of water and supplies might check the Sikh advance. But Ranjit Singh's general sank wells as he marched, so that the Tiwánas fled in despair, and wandered about for a time as outcasts. The Maharájá, however, after annexing their territory, dreaded their energy and influence, and therefore endeavoured to conciliate them by inviting them to Lahore, where he made a liberal provision for their support. On the death of the famous Hari Singh—to whom had been assigned the Tiwána estates—at Jamrúd, in 1837, Fateh Khán, the representative of the Tiwána family, obtained a grant of the ancestral domains from his patron at court, Rájá Dhián Singh. Thenceforward, Málík Fateh Khán took a prominent part in the turbulent politics of the Sikh realm, after the rapidly succeeding deaths of Ranjit Singh, his son, and grandson. Thrown into prison by the opposite faction, after the murder of Dhiám Singh, he was released by Lieut. (afterwards Sir Herbert) Edwardes, who sent him to Bannu on the outbreak of the Múltán rebellion to relieve Lieut. Taylor. Shortly afterwards the Sikh troops mutinied, and Fateh Khán was shot down while boldly challenging the bravest champion of the Sikhs to meet him in single combat. His son and a cousin proved themselves actively loyal during the revolt, and were rewarded for their good service both at this period and after the Mutiny of 1857. The District passed under direct British rule, with the rest of the Punjab, on the suppression of the Múltán rebellion. At the period of annexation, the greater part of the country was peopled only by wild pastoral tribes, without fixed abodes, but moving from place to place in search of grass and water. Under the influence of settled government, they have begun to establish themselves in permanent habitations, to cultivate the soil in all suitable places, and to acquire a feeling of attachment to their regular homes. The Mutiny of 1857 had little influence upon Sháhpur. The District remained tranquil, and though the villages of the *hár* gave cause for alarm, no outbreak of sepoys took place, and the wild tribes of the upland did not revolt even when their brethren in the Múltán Division took up arms. A body of Tiwána horse, levied in the District, did excellent service, and earned for their Málíks the coveted title of Khán Bahádúr.

Population.—The Census of 1855 was taken over an area so greatly altered by subsequent territorial changes (as the trans-Jhelum tract then lay chiefly within the old District of Leiah) that detailed comparison with later statistics becomes impossible. A rough calculation,

however, would appear to show that the general density of population increased 25 per cent. between that date and 1868; and although this increase may be regarded as excessive, there can be no doubt that the number of inhabitants has grown with great rapidity ever since the annexation. The enumeration of 1868 extended over a total area of 4700 square miles, and disclosed a population of 368,796 persons, distributed among 667 villages or townships, and inhabiting 86,549 houses. From these data the following averages may be calculated:—Persons per square mile, 78·55; villages per square mile, 0·14; houses per square mile, 18·42; persons per village, 552; persons per house, 4·26. But though the density of population is thus low, when the desert area is taken into account, the proportion of inhabitants to the cultivable surface is really very high, being upwards of 400 per square mile in the tilled portions of the Salt Range. The cultivable land, indeed, is very much subdivided, and is barely sufficient for the support of its inhabitants. Classified according to sex, the Census showed 195,823 males and 172,973 females; proportion of males, 53·10 per cent. Classified according to age, the returns give, under 12 years—males, 71,466; females, 63,203; total children, 134,669, or 36 per cent. of the whole population: above 12 years—males, 124,357; females, 109,770; total adults, 234,127, or 64 per cent. of the whole population. As regards religious distinctions, the faith of Islām immensely preponderates, the number of Muhammadans being 305,507, or 82·82 per cent., as against 53,590 Hindus, or 14·53 per cent.; 3122 Sikhs, or 0·85 per cent.; and 6577 ‘others,’ or 1·78 per cent. The agricultural classes consist almost entirely of Muhammadans, the Hindus being occupied in trading operations. The District contained in 1868 four towns with a population exceeding 5000 souls, namely—BHERA, 14,514; SAHIWAL, 8900; KHUSHAB, 8509; and MIANI (Meeanee), 6857. SHAHPUR, the civil station, has only 4743 inhabitants.

Agriculture.—The total area under cultivation in 1871-72 amounted to 423,680 acres, of which 252,800 acres were artificially irrigated. The spring harvest forms the main crop of the District. Wheat, the spring staple, covers little less than half the cultivated area; while spiked millet and cotton make up the chief items of the autumn harvest. Among the more valuable commercial crops, sugar-cane is grown only in the valley of the Chenáb, and poppy in the Jhelum lowlands between Sháhpur and Bhera. Wheat thrives best in the alluvial soils that fringe the two rivers, where it is the only crop grown, as after it is cut floods inundate the whole valley, and only subside in time for the next sowing. It also grows luxuriantly in the rich hollows and basins among the Salt Range, where the cool climate admirably suits it. The use of manure and rotation of crops

are little understood. Land from which a spring crop has been taken is occasionally sown afresh for the autumn harvest. In the Salt Range, the richness of the soil admits of successive sowings without any repose; in the tract below the hills, the torrents bring down perpetual supplies of fresh *detritus*; in the alluvial fringe of the rivers, the floods fertilize the soil by their annual deposit of silt, and so render possible a constant succession of double crops; but elsewhere the land lies fallow every second year. The anarchy which followed the break up of the Delhi Empire, and the grinding nature of the Sikh rule, have resulted in the disintegration of the village communities. Most of the tenures at present in existence belong to the type known as *bháyáchára*. Only 66 villages retain the ancient communal type. Agricultural labourers receive their wages entirely in kind, usually in the form of a proportion of the crops grown by their labour. Coolies receive from 2½d. to 3½d. per diem; skilled labourers, from 6d. to 1s. Prices of food grains ruled as follows in 1873:—Wheat, 20 *seers* per rupee, or 5s. 7d. per cwt.; barley, 28 *seers* per rupee, or 4s. per cwt.; *joár*, 26 *seers* per rupee, or 4s. 4d. per cwt.; *báíra*, 28 *seers* per rupee, or 4s. per cwt.; and rice, 10 *seers* per rupee, or 11s. 2d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The commercial importance of the District depends almost entirely upon its connection with the Salt Range, Miáni having been from time immemorial the centre for the salt of the MAYO MINES in Jhelum District. Opium and *sajji* (carbonate of soda) are bought up by traders from Ráwal Pindi, Siálkot, and Kashmir (Cashmere); but most of the surplus produce of Sháhpur finds its way down the river in country boats to Múltán and Sukkur (Sakhar). The chief exports are grain, rice, cotton, wool, *ghí*, and saltpetre; the principal imports—sugar, English piece-goods, and metals. The Povindah merchants from Afghánistán bring down madder, dried fruits, gold coin, and spices in the winter, which they exchange for country cloth. Scarves of silk and cotton are manufactured at Khusháb; turned and lacquered toys at Sahiwál; felt at Bhera; and blankets throughout the District. Sháhpur has no railroads; but good fair-weather roads intersect it in several directions, the chief being that from Láhore to Bannu and Derá Ismáíl Khán, which passes Sháhpur and Khusháb, and that which runs along the left bank of the Jhelum from Pind Dádan Khán to Múltán. Tolerable roads also open up the Salt Range; and the two main rivers are navigable throughout their whole course within this District.

Administration.—The District staff comprises a Deputy Commissioner, Assistant and extra-Assistant Commissioner, and the usual fiscal, medical, and constabulary officials. The total amount of revenue raised in the District in 1872-73 amounted to £469,955, of which sum the land tax contributed only £43,514. The largest item is

that of salt and customs, amounting to as much as £418,579. The incidence of the salt tax makes Sháhpur the most valuable District in point of revenue in the whole Punjab ; but the mines from which the income is really derived lie within the neighbouring District of Jhelum. The total police force in 1873 amounted to 462 officers and men, being at the rate of 1 policeman to every 11·34 square miles of area and every 1334 of the population. The District jail, near the civil station of Sháhpur, contained in 1872 a daily average of 274 prisoners. Education still remains at a very low ebb, except in the four larger towns, while the nomad peasantry of the *bár* regard it with positive aversion. The District contained in 1872-73, 187 schools, with a roll of 4381 pupils. There is one printing press at the Sháhpur jail. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is subdivided into 3 *tahsils*. The six municipal towns of MIANI, SAHIWAL, KHUSHAB, BHERA, SHAHPUR, and GIROT had an aggregate revenue in 1875-76 of £2979 ; incidence of taxation, 1s. 3½d. per head of the population (46,322) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the plains is hot and dry, but in the Salt Range the temperature is cool and the rainfall more abundant. The annual rainfall in the plains for the six years ending 1871-72 averaged 19·01 inches, the maximum during that period being 36 inches in 1868-69, and the minimum 11·2 inches in 1866-67. No record of temperature is now kept, but the registers of 1868-70 give a mean temperature in the shade of 80·65 F. The principal endemic diseases are intermittent and remittent fevers, dysentery and diarrhœa. Goitre prevails on the right bank of the Chenáb, and guinea-worm at the foot of the Salt Range. The total number of deaths reported in 1872 was 14,443, of which 10,426 were assigned to fevers and 584 to bowel complaints. The District contains 7 charitable dispensaries, which afforded relief in 1872 to 42,118 persons, of whom 461 were in-patients.

Sháhpur.—*Tahsíl* of Sháhpur District, Punjab ; lying in the Jetch Doáb portion of the District, and consisting of a narrow belt of cultivation along the Jhelum (Jhílám) river, together with a wide sterile upland tract in the rear.

Sháhpur.—Town and administrative headquarters of Sháhpur District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 4743. Situated in lat. 32° 16' N., and long. 72° 31' E., on the left bank of the Jhelum (Jhílám) river, exactly opposite KHUSHAB. Derives its only claim to importance from the presence of the civil station. Court-house, *tahsili*, police station, staging bungalow, *sardí* (native inn), dispensary, school house, and town hall.

Sháhpur.—Hill range in Mándla District, Central Provinces ; north of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) river, while the Johilá flows below. Forms

part of the watershed between Eastern and Western India. The scenery is wild and desolate, the only inhabitants being a few small colonies of Gonds and Baigás. The Gejar and Ganjái stream down from the highlands in a series of waterfalls, the finest of which is 60 feet high; behind the falls yawn dark caverns, tenanted by wild beasts and by reputed evil spirits. Most of the range, however, is under the immediate protection of Mahádeva.

Sháhpura.—Native State in Rájputána, under the political superintendence of the Rájputána Agency. Estimated area, 400 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 36,000. Revenue, excluding alienations, about £20,000. The country is flat and treeless, but fertile; much of it is pasture land. The Rájá of Sháhpura holds a fief under the Maharáná of Udaípur, consisting of 74 villages, with an estimated population of about 16,000 persons, and a revenue of £3500. Tribute of £300 is paid to the State of Udaípur. The Rájá is thus a feudatory both of the British Government and of Udaípur. The ruling family is of the Sesodia Rájput clan, being descended from a former Ráná of Udaípur. The founder of the house was Suráj Mall, a younger son of the Ráná, from whom the late chief was tenth in direct lineal descent. Suráj Mall received as his portion the *parganá* of Kherar in Udaípur, and his son also acquired from the Emperor Sháh Jahán, in reward for his gallant services, a grant of the *parganá* of Phulia out of the crown lands of Ajmere, upon condition of furnishing certain horse and footmen for service. He abandoned the town of Phulia and founded the present town of SHAHPURA. In 1848, the Rájá of Sháhpura received a *sanad* from the British Government fixing the amount of his tribute at £1000 per annum, with the proviso that if the customs duties levied in Ajmere were abolished he should also cease to collect such duties, and in consideration of such loss of revenue his tribute should be reduced to £200. The chief also holds a *sanad* guaranteeing to him the right of adoption. The present Rájá, Dhiráj Nahar Sinh, was born about 1855. There is a dispensary in the State, and vaccination is encouraged. The military force of the State consists of 12 guns, 20 artillerymen, 250 cavalry, and the same number of infantry.

Sháhpura.—Capital of Sháhpura State, Rájputána. Lat. 27° 23' 45" N., long. 76° 1' E. School, in which Hindi and arithmetic are the chief subjects taught, attended in 1875 by 198 pupils. In that year, a girls' school was also established.

Sháhpuri.—Small island, situated at the mouth of the Náaf river in Chittagong District, Bengal; famous as having afforded the *casus belli* of the first Burmese war. The Burmese claimed possession of the island, although it had for many years been in the undisputed occupation of the British. Tolls were levied upon boats belonging to Chittagong;

and on one occasion, the demand being resisted, the Burmese fired upon the party and killed the steersman. This act of violence was followed by the assemblage of armed men on the eastern side of the Náaf, and universal consternation pervaded the villages in this the most remote and unprotected portion of Chittagong District. On the night of the 24th September 1823, the Burmese proceeded to enforce their claim to the island of Sháhpuri; a thousand men landed on the island, overpowered the guard, killed and wounded several of the party, and drove the rest off the island. As soon as this was known at Calcutta, a detachment of troops was sent to dislodge the Burmese, who, however, had previously retired. The occupation of Sháhpuri by a military force had the effect of arresting for a time the hostile demonstrations of the Burmese on the Chittagong frontier. But not long afterwards the Rájá of Arakan was ordered to expel the English from Sháhpuri, and officials from Ava proceeded to take possession of the island, which had been temporarily abandoned on account of its unhealthiness. This and other acts of hostility rendered war inevitable; and in a proclamation dated the 24th February 1824, the grounds on which the first Burmese war was declared were made known.

Shahr Sultan.—Town in Muzaffargarh District, Punjab; situated in lat. $29^{\circ} 35'$ N., and long. $71^{\circ} 2'$ E. Pop. (1868), 2836.

Shaikháwati (*Shekháwati*).—A Province of Jáipur State in Rájputána; situated between lat. $27^{\circ} 20'$ and $28^{\circ} 33'$ N., and long. $74^{\circ} 40'$ and $76^{\circ} 5'$ E. It is bounded on the north-east by the Punjab States of Loháru and Patiála, on the south-east by Jáipur proper, on the south by Jodhpur or Márwár, and on the west and north-west by Bikaner. Its area has been estimated at 5400 square miles, and its population at 432,000. In its physical aspects, the more fertile part of Shaikháwati resembles Jáipur; but a large portion of its soil is sandy desert, like that of Bikaner. There are no perennial rivers; but a small stream, which rises in the northern part of Jáipur, flows northward for some distance through Shaikháwati, ultimately losing itself in the sand. There is an important salt lake in the Province, called Kachor-Rewas; it is not worked by any means to its full capacity, but the present yearly out-turn of salt is about 6000 tons. The minerals of Shaikháwati are important; the copper-mines near Khetri being perhaps the most valuable in India. The ores are copper pyrites, mixed, it is said, with grey copper-ore (*fahlerz* or *tetrahedrite*); some carbonates also occur, and native copper has been found. Near the surface, also, in the shales, blue vitriol is produced by the decomposition of the pyrites. In the same mines cobalt is also obtained, the ore occurring in small veins. These mines have evidently been worked for a very long period. Some of the hills in the neighbourhood are honeycombed with old excavations; and the heaps of slag from the furnaces have accumulated in the

course of time, until they now form a range of hillocks several hundred feet in length and from 30 to 40 feet high.

History, etc. — Shaikháwati is politically a confederacy of petty Rájput chieftains, bound to each other and to their common overlord at Jáipur by the ties of clanship. The Shaikháwats are a sept of that Kachwáha clan whose head is the Mahárájá of Jáipur or Amber. They derive their name from Shaikhjí, the grandson of Bálají, who was a younger son of the Mahárájá of Jáipur in 1389 A.D., and received a portion of this territory in appanage. Shaikhjí was so called from a famous Musalmán saint named Shaikh Burhán, whose shrine near Achrol is still regarded with veneration, and whose prayers had been successfully invoked by Shaikhjí's father for the birth of a son and heir. In commemoration of this incident, every Shaikháwat boy wears, for two years from his birth, the Musalmán *badiá* or threads, as well as the blue tunic and cap; and the Shaikháwat sportsmen never hunt the wild hog or touch its flesh, although by other Rájputs it is commonly eaten once a year. Moreover, although the lands surrounding the saint's *dargah* belong now to the demesne of the Jáipur Mahárájá, the *dargah* itself is a sanctuary, and rent-free lands are held by about a hundred families descended from Shaikh Burhán. Shaikhjí's father and grandfather had paid as tribute to the Mahárájá all the colts reared on their land; but Shaikhjí so enlarged his power that for some generations the lords of Shaikháwati became independent of the parent State. From Shaikhjí's great-grandson, Rái Síh, are descended the chieftains of Southern Shaikháwati, who hence have always been known as Ráísilots; and from a younger son of Rái Síh are descended the principal chieftains of Northern Shaikháwati, called the Sádhanís. The chief settlement of the Ráísilots, and the most important principality of Shaikháwati, was at Khandela; whilst the early seat of the Sádhanís was at Udáipur, another town of this territory, not to be confounded with the capital of Mewár. There have been, and still are, many other branches of the family, between whom feuds, conquests, and reconquests have been interminable. Rái Síh himself became chief both of Khandela and of Udáipur by the help of the Delhi Emperor; and he is mentioned in the *Ain-i-Akbari* as a *mansabdár* of 1250 horse under Akbar. After the fatal battle of Merta, in 1754, had laid Rájputána prostrate at the feet of the Marhattás under De Boigne, Shaikháwati suffered severely from their ravages; most of her towns were sacked, the capital, Khandela, being saved from that fate only by a heavy payment. Later on, it was the scene of some of the exploits of the famous adventurer George Thomas, who was called in by a chief of Khandela to aid him against Jáipur. Finally, however, the Shaikháwat chieftains acknowledged the suzerainty of Jáipur; though the bond seems never to have been very close. The leading chiefships are those of Sikar and Khandela, Khetri and Kotputli.

The custom of equal division on succession to land in Shaikháwati is similar to that which prevails in Maláni, a dependency of Jodhpur that holds much the same kind of relation to its parent State that Shaikháwati does to Jáipur; and therein the custom differs from that prevalent elsewhere throughout Rájputána, where the eldest son succeeds. The custom, however, does not appear to extend to the larger estates and chiefships in Shaikháwati.

Shaikh Budín (*Shekh Budín*).—Hill sanatorium in Bannu (Bunnoo) and Derá Ismáíl Khán Districts, Punjab, lying in lat. $32^{\circ} 17' 48''$ N., and long. $70^{\circ} 50' 48''$ E., on the border of the two Districts, but included for administrative purposes in Derá Ismáíl Khán. Elevation above sea level, 4516 feet. Distant from Derá Ismáíl Khán town 57 miles north, from Bannu town 64 miles south. The sanatorium crowns a bare limestone rock, which rises abruptly from the low range of Mohar, whose highest point it forms. A few stunted wild olives and acacias compose the only vegetation on the shadeless slope. The heat is frequently excessive, though mitigated from June to October by a cool south-western breeze. This drawback, combined with the want of sufficient water supply and the paucity of building sites, renders Shaikh Budín a very inadequate sanatorium. Persons who go up in good health are seldom attacked by illness; but the climate is not bracing enough for constitutions which require a radical change.

Shaikh Budín (*Shekh Budín*).—Mountain range, separating the Districts of Bannu and Derá Ismáíl Khán, Punjab. The highest point (4516 feet above sea level) is occupied (lat. $32^{\circ} 17' 48''$ N., long. $70^{\circ} 50' 48''$ E.) by the sanatorium which takes its name (Shaikh Budín) from the range.

Shaikhpurá.—Town and *tháná* in Monghyr District, Bengal. Lat. $25^{\circ} 8' 30''$ N., long. $85^{\circ} 53' 11''$ E.; pop. (1872), 11,536. Police force, 23 men.

Shakargarh.—*Tahsíl* of Gurdáspur District, Punjab; comprising the whole trans-Rávi portion of the District, except Narot *parganá*.

Shakargarh.—Town and fort in Pesháwar District, Punjab.—See SHABKADAR.

Sha-khai.—Revenue circle in the Tsam-bay-rún (or Kyún-paw) township of Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 3296; gross revenue, £989.

Sháli.—Hill in Bhajji State, Simlá District, Punjab. Lat. $31^{\circ} 11' N.$, long. $77^{\circ} 20' E.$ Described by Thornton as rising in a steep and almost inaccessible peak 4 miles south of the Sutlej (Satlaj), and containing on its summit a wooden temple where human sacrifices were formerly offered to the goddess Káli. Elevation above sea level, 9623 feet.

Shalvari.—Town in Dhárwár District, Bombay; situated 32 miles east by north of Dhárwár town. Pop. (1872), 5220.

Shámli.—North-western *tahsil* of Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces; comprising a level upland, traversed throughout by the Eastern Jumna Canal, whose distributaries extend over every part of its surface. Area, 461 square miles, of which 268 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 195,990; land revenue, £32,099; total Government revenue, £37,548; rental paid by cultivators, £71,239.

Shámli.—Trading town in Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsil* of the same name; situated in lat. $29^{\circ} 26' 45''$ N., and long. $77^{\circ} 21' 10''$ E., on the bank of the Eastern Jumna Canal, 24 miles west of Muzaffarnagar town, on a low unhealthy site. Pop. (1872), 9177, consisting of 7158 Hindus and 2019 Muhammadans. Shámli suffers much from malarious diseases; but a scheme of drainage now (1875) in progress will probably do much to lessen this evil. Handsome *bázár*; considerable trade with the Punjab, consisting of exports of sugar and imports of salt. Originally known as Muhammadpur Zanárdár; derives its present name from Shám, who built a market in Jahángir's reign. Held in 1794 by a Marhattá commandant, who fell under suspicion of intriguing with the Sikhs. Lakwa Dáda, the Marhattá governor, despatched George Thomas against the commandant. Thomas stormed the town, and cut to pieces the suspected parties. In 1804, Colonel Burn was surrounded at Shámli by an overwhelming force of Marhattás, but escaped from a desperate position through the opportune advance of Lord Lake. During the Mutiny of 1857, the native *tahsildár* held the town bravely for the British; but fell at last gallantly defending his post against the insurgents of THANA BHAWAN. Police station, post office. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1205; from taxes, £976, or 2s. $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. per head of population (9300) within municipal limits.

Shamsha (or *Shimshupa*; also called the *Kadamba* and the *Kadábakola*).—Tributary of the Káveri (Cauvery) river, in Mysore. It rises in lat. $13^{\circ} 25'$ N., long. $77^{\circ} 15'$ E.; in Túngkúr District near Deveráy-durga, and flows in a southerly direction to join the Káveri, in lat. $12^{\circ} 19'$ N., long. $77^{\circ} 18'$ E., just below the falls of Sivasamudaram, in Mysore District. In Túngkúr District its waters are utilized to form the great Kadaba tank; and in Mysore District it is crossed by a dam or anicut 9 miles above Maddúr. This anicut has recently been rebuilt by the Public Works Department of hewn stone. It feeds the Maddúr tank, and supplies irrigation channels 12 miles in length, capable of irrigating 2240 acres, and yielding a revenue of £671.

Shamshábád.—Town in Farrukhábád District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. $27^{\circ} 32' 15''$ N., and long. $79^{\circ} 28' 40''$ E., on the south bank of the Buddhi Ganga river, 18 miles north-west of Fatchgarh. Pop. (1872), 8710. Anglo-vernacular school.

Shámsherganj.—Village in Sylhet District, Assam; situated in lat.

24° 43' N., and long. 91° 34' E. There is a considerable river trade, the exports being—rice, oil-seeds, molasses, *sítalpáti* and bamboo mats; and the imports—piece-goods, pulses, spices, and tobacco.

Shan-kweng.—Revenue circle in the Tha-boung township of Bassein District, Pegu, British Burma. Area, 40 square miles; pop. (1878), 2402; gross revenue, £723. With the exception of a rice tract in the east, this circle consists of a mass of densely wooded spurs from the Arakan range, across which a pass runs from the village of Tha-boung to Khyoung-thai, about 400 feet above sea level.

Shanor.—One of the petty States of Rewa Kántha, Bombay. Area, 3½ square miles. Estimated revenue in 1875, £1000, of which £157 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The chief is Ráná Kúshal Sinhji.

Shápur.—One of the petty States of Hállár in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 4 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue in 1876, £650; of which £46 is paid as tribute to the British Government, and £14 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Sháradánadí (or *Anakapalli*).—River in Vizagapatam District, Madras. Rises in the Madgol Hills, and, flowing south-west past Anakapalli and Kásimkota, enters the sea at Wattada. It is much used for irrigation, being crossed by six large anicuts. The total length of the river is about 45 miles.

Shárákpur.—*Tahsil* of Lahore District, Punjab, comprising the whole trans-Rávi portion of the District.

Sharakpur.—Town in Lahore District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsil* of the same name; situated in lat. 31° 27' N., and long. 74° 6' E., west of the Rávi, and on the bank of the river Degh. Pop. (1868), 4162. The best rice of the District is grown in the neighbourhood, on land irrigated from the Degh. Only town of any importance in the trans-Rávi tract, and centre of a considerable trade in local produce.

Sharavatí (*'The Arrowy'*).—River of Southern India, which rises in lat. 13° 44' N., long. 75° 11' E., at Ambu-tirtha in Shimoga District, Mysore; flows in a north-westerly direction through the District of Shimoga, and, after breaking through the line of the Western Gháts by a sheer leap of 900 feet over the magnificent Falls of Gersoppa, falls into the sea at Honáwar in the Bombay District of North Kánara. In Shimoga District, the stream is crossed by 70 anicuts or dams, from which irrigation channels are drawn having an aggregate length of 26 miles.

Sharretalai.—Chief town of the Sharretalai District of Travancore State, Madras; situated in lat. 9° 41' 30" N., and long. 76° 23' 20" E. Pop. (1871), 9228 (among whom are many Christians), dwelling in 2190 houses. The town contains a pagoda, which is the scene of an annual festival; and a Syro-Roman Church, built about 1550 A.D.

Shatal (*Shatul*).—Mountain pass in Bashahr State, Punjab, on the

road from Chuára to Kunáwar, over the southernmost ridge of the Himálayas. Lat. $31^{\circ} 23' N.$, long. $78^{\circ} 3' E.$ Mentioned by Thornton as dangerous on account both of the deep snow and cold wind. Elevation above sea level, 15,555 feet.

Shegáon.—Town in Akola District, Berar, and a station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway; situated in lat. $20^{\circ} 48' N.$, and long. $76^{\circ} 46' E.$, 24 miles west of Akola town, and about 11 miles from Bálápur and Khámgaón. Pop., according to the Census of 1867, 7450; according to the Administrative Report for 1876-77, 8120. Before the opening of the railway in 1863, Shegáon had little commerce; but a cotton market is now held here, and considerable supplies of cotton have of late been brought here instead of to Khámgaón. There are several cotton presses, some under European superintendence. Travellers' bungalow, *sardí* (native inn), and police station; Government school, and post office.

Shekháwati.—Division of Jáipur State, Rájputána.—*See* SHAIKH-AWATI.

Shekh Budín.—Sanatorium and mountains in Derá Ismáíl Khán and Bannu Districts, Punjab.—*See* SHAIKH BUDIN.

Shekohpura.—Ancient town in Gujránwálá District, Punjab; situated on the road between Háfizábád and Lahore, 22 miles from the former town. Contains a ruined fort, built by the Emperor Jahángír. Prince Dára Shekoh, grandson of Jahángír, from whom the town probably derives its name, is said to have connected it by a cut with the Aik rivulet, and this cut now forms the main channel of the stream. Under Ranjít Sinh, Shekohpura became the residence of one of his queens, Rání Ráj Kauran, better known as Rání Nakáyan, whose cumbrous brick palace still remains the most conspicuous object in the town. After British annexation, the headquarters of the District were fixed for a time at this spot; but since the removal of the civil station to Gujránwála, Shekohpura has possessed no importance of any sort, except as a resort for sportsmen.

Shellá.—Petty State or confederacy in the Khásí Hills, Assam; presided over by two elective chiefs of equal authority, with the title of *wádhaddárs*. Pop. (1872), 5511; revenue, £70. The natural products include oranges, pine-apples, and betel-nuts. Bamboos are worked into mats and baskets. Limestone is extensively quarried, and both coal and iron are found. Shellá has been for many years a station of the Welsh Calvinistic Mission, who maintain a school in which English is taught, and also a girls' school.

Shendamangalam.—Town in Salem District, Madras. Lat. $11^{\circ} 40' 30'' N.$, long. $78^{\circ} 10' 20'' E.$; pop. (1871), 11,783, inhabiting 3114 houses. A considerable amount of iron is smelted here.

Shendurni.—Alienated town in Khándesh District, Bombay; ~~sit-~~

ated in lat. $20^{\circ} 39' N.$, and long. $75^{\circ} 39' E.$, 60 miles south-east of Dhulia, and 17 miles east of Páchora station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Pop. (1872), 5350. Shendurni was a grant made to the family priest of the Peshwá, Bájí Ráo. An annual Hindu fair is held here. Post office.

Sheng-dha-wai.—A highly venerated pagoda in Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. It is 77 feet high, and 301 feet in circumference at the base. The shrine is supposed to enclose a relic of Gautama, which, released by its possessor the miraculously-born Thenggan Meng, alighted at the spot where the pagoda now stands, and was received by the people in a golden basket.

Sheng-maw.—Pagoda on Tavoy Point, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Founded in 1204 A.D. by Nara-pad-dí-tsí-thú, King of Burma, when he visited this part of his dominions. It is highly revered as containing a tooth of Gautama.

Sheng-mút-ti (*Sheng-moot-tee*).—The most famous pagoda in Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; 58 feet high, and 308 feet in circumference at the base. It is said to have been built to enshrine an image which was miraculously floated from India to the spot where the sacred edifice now stands. A sacred stone and a banian tree are shown near the pagoda. An annual festival is held here.

Sheng-ngay.—Revenue circle in the Shwe-doung township of Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2142; land revenue, £446, and capitation tax, £232.

Shenkotta.—Chief town of the Shenkotta District of Travancore State, Madras; situated in lat. $8^{\circ} 59' N.$, and long. $77^{\circ} 17' 45'' E.$, on the main road from Trevandrum and the South Travancore ports, across the Gháts, to Tinneveli, from which place it is distant about 40 miles. Pop. (1871), 9752, inhabiting 2621 houses. Several coffee estates have been opened in the neighbourhood of Shenkotta, which is an important centre of trade.

Sheopur.—Town in Gwalior State, Central India.—*See* SEOPUR.

Sher.—River of the Central Provinces, rising in lat. $22^{\circ} 34' N.$, long. $79^{\circ} 44' E.$, near Khamariá in Seoni District, which, after a north-westerly course of 80 miles, falls into the Narbada (Nerbudda), in lat. $23^{\circ} N.$, long. $79^{\circ} 10' E.$, near the centre of Narsinhpur District. It is spanned by a fine stone bridge at Sonái Dongri in Seoni, which carries the Nágpur and Jabalpur road; and the Great Indian Peninsula Railway crosses it by a lattice girder bridge 8 miles east of Narsinhpur. Coal, but of no commercial value, has been found in the river-bed near Sihorá in Narsinhpur. Principal affluents—the Mácha, Rewa, and Barú Rewa.

Sher Ali.—Port in North Kánara District, Bombay.—*See* SHIRALI.

Shergarh.—Town in Muttra (Mathurá) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. $27^{\circ} 46' 40'' N.$, and long. $77^{\circ} 38' 40'' E.$, on

the right bank of the Jumna (Jamuná), 8 miles north-east of Chhátá. Pop. (1872), 5305.

Shergarh.—Ruined village in Sháhábád District, Bengal; situated in lat. $24^{\circ} 49' 45''$ N., and long. $83^{\circ} 46' 15''$ E., 20 miles south-west of Sásserám. This spot was selected by Sher Sháh as the site of a fortress soon after he had begun strengthening ROHTAS, which he abandoned on discovering the superior advantages of Shergarh.

Sherghátí.—Municipal town in Gayá District, Bengal; situated at the point where the Grand Trunk Road crosses the Murahar, in lat. $24^{\circ} 33' 24''$ N., and long. $84^{\circ} 50' 28''$ E. Pop. (1872), 7033. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £110; rate of taxation, $3\frac{1}{2}$ d. per head of population; police force, 20 men. The town has declined in importance since the construction of the East Indian Railway. There are still to be found here the descendants of skilled artisans, workers in brass, wood, and iron. When Sherghátí formed part of the District of Rámgarh it was known as a centre of crime, which led to the appointment of a special Joint Magistrate in 1814.

Sherkot.—Town in Bijnáur (Bijnor) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. $29^{\circ} 19' 35''$ N., and long. $78^{\circ} 36' 55''$ E., on the bank of the Kho river. Pop. (1872), 12,586. Formerly headquarters of the Dhámpur *tahsíl*, now the residence of Chaudhri Basant Sinh, a wealthy *tálukdár*.

Shermádevi (*Shcranmahádevi*).—Town in Ambásamudaram *táluk*, Tinnevellí District, Madras; situated in lat. $8^{\circ} 40' 40''$ N., and long. $77^{\circ} 35' .3''$ E., on the Támbraparni river. Formerly headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name; at present residence of the Sub-Collector of the District. Pop. (1871), 6064; number of houses, 1870.

Sheroda.—State in Káthiáwár, Bombay.—See SHIRODA.

Sherpur.—Town in Gházipur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. $25^{\circ} 34' 40''$ N., and long. $83^{\circ} 50'$ E., on the alluvial plain south of the Ganges. Pop. (1872), 7958.

Sherpur.—Municipal town in Bográ District, Bengal. Lat. $24^{\circ} 40' 20''$ N., long. $89^{\circ} 28' 20''$ E.; pop. (1872), 4229, consisting of 2778 Hindus, 1404 Muhammadans, and 47 'others.' Municipal income (1876-77), £260; incidence of taxation, 1s. $2\frac{1}{4}$ d. per head of population. Though the number of Hindus is so great, the town is surrounded on all sides by Muhammadan places of worship, which are held in much esteem. The proportion of brick-built houses is unusually large, and the principal landholders of the District reside in the town. But it is as a place of historical interest that Sherpur is most deserving of notice. It is mentioned in the *Ain-i-Akbari*, 1595 A.D., as the site of a fort called Salímnagar, in honour of Salím, the son of Akbar, afterwards famous as the Emperor Jahángir. It also figures in the writings of other Muhammadan historians as an important frontier post, previous

to the conquest of South-Eastern Bengal, and the establishment of the Government at Dacca. These writers always refer to the place as Sherpur Murchá, to distinguish it from another Sherpur in Maimansinh; and it is marked on Van den Broucke's Map (1660) as 'Ceerpoor Mirts.' Rájá Mán Sinh, Akbar's Hindu general, is said to have built a palace at Sherpur; and it is very probable that he would make use of so convenient a centre, from which to dominate Southern Bengal, and particularly Jessor, which then (about 1600 A.D.) included a large part of the present District of Pabná, and was held by the rebel *zamindár*, Rájá Pratápáditya, against whom Mán Sinh specially directed his arms.

Sherpur.—Municipal town in Maimansinh District, Bengal. Lat. $25^{\circ} 0' 58''$ N., long. $90^{\circ} 3' 6''$ E.; lies between the rivers Shirí and Mirghí, about half a mile from the former and 1 mile from the latter, 9 miles north of Jamalpur. Pop. (1872), 8015, including the suburbs of Náráyanpur and Barukpára. There is no water carriage to the town, and even water for drinking and household purposes is obtained solely from tanks. Sherpur contains a fine Hindu temple; its buildings in general are in bad repair, and the place has a decayed and neglected appearance. Police station, post office, subordinate judge's court, and a good school. Municipal income (1876-77), £320; rate of taxation, 9½d. per head of population. Considerable river trade. In 1876-77, the registered exports comprised 27,100 *maunds* of jute (mostly sent to Náráyananj), 35,100 *maunds* of rice and paddy, and 30,600 *maunds* of mustard seed; the imports included European piece-goods, valued at £5770, and 1200 *maunds* of betel-nuts.

Sherpur.—Chief town of the Sherpur Subdivision of Khándesh District, Bombay; situated 30 miles north of Dhulia, in lat. $21^{\circ} 21'$ N., and long. $74^{\circ} 57'$ E. Pop. (1872), 6571. Sherpur is a municipal town, with an annual income of £185. Post office.

Sher Shah.—River fort in Múltán District, Punjab; situated in lat. $30^{\circ} 6' 45''$ N., and long. $71^{\circ} 20'$ E., upon the Chenáb river. Until the opening of the Indus Valley State Railway in 1879, Sher Shah was the terminus of the line from Múltán, and the port of the steam flotilla that plied to Karáchi (Kurrachee).

Shervaráyar Malai.—Hills in Salem District, Madras.—See SHEVAROY.

Shetrunja (*Satrunjaya*).—Great place of Jain pilgrimage in Pálitána, Guzerat, Bombay.—See PALITANA TOWN.

Sheva (*Síva*).—Port on the coast of Thána (Tanna) District, Bombay. Lat. $19^{\circ} 3'$ N., long. $72^{\circ} 54'$ E. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1873-74—imports, £2533, and exports, £1680.

Shevaroy Hills (*Seervaráyar Malai*).—Hill range in Salem District, Madras; situated between $11^{\circ} 43'$ and $11^{\circ} 55'$ N. lat., and between $78^{\circ} 13'$ and $78^{\circ} 24' 30''$ E. long. The hills occupy a

total area of about 100 square miles, with a plateau of about 20 square miles; average elevation 4500 feet; highest point in the Green Hills, 5410 feet above the sea. The population of the hills was returned in 1871 at 10,745; number of houses, 2812. Two passes or *gháts* lead to the tableland—one on the south from Salem city, and the other on the north from the Báramahál. The former is about 6 miles in length, and is a Government road. It is in some parts very steep and impassable for wheeled conveyances; but it is capable of improvement. This is at present the only practicable approach to the hills, and the daily supplies of the inhabitants are brought up from Salem on this road by coolies, or on the backs of bullocks. The northern *ghát* is reached from the Mallápuram railway station; and although no road has as yet been constructed, the gradients are said to be easy, and a carriage-way practicable. Mallápuram is distant 180 miles from Madras, and 8 miles from the foot of the hills. Coolies for carrying loads are to be had at the Shevaroy Hills station on the arrival of the trains. From its elevation and geographical position, it may be inferred that the Shevaroy Mountain range possesses a very equable climate. Partaking as it does of both monsoons, the rainfall is considerable, and the moisture of the air tolerably constant during the year. In a room without a fire, and with open windows, the thermometer seldom stands below 65° F., and rarely rises above 75° F. in the hottest months. The flora is almost precisely similar to that found at a corresponding elevation on the Palani, Nílgiří, and Anamalai ranges. The base of the mountains is covered with the common forms of vegetation found in the adjoining low country. The middle region is clothed with a zone of bamboo jungle, which ascends to a height of about 3500 feet, where it abruptly terminates. Teak, blackwood, and sandal-wood are found, in favourable situations, up to this elevation. The teak, in a stunted form, is met with on the mountain plateau at an elevation of 4500 feet. Tigers are not very often seen, and generally come from the low country. Leopards are more numerous. Bison and bears are found on the Nagalúr side of the hills. The *sambhar* and spotted deer are sometimes met with in the jungle low down on the mountain-side. Jungle sheep and hares are common on the hill plateau, but difficult to shoot, from the thickness of the cover.

YERCAUD (Yerkádu) is the oldest and largest European settlement in the hills. It is situated on that portion of the plateau nearest to the town of Salem. The land in the valleys is undulating, and a great portion of it is already under coffee cultivation. The hill peaks are for the most part bare of soil, and the steep slopes are covered with low jungle.

The Green Hills are higher than any other portion of the range, and vary from 4500 to 5300 feet above sea level. They differ much in

appearance from any other portion of the Shevaroy's. The tops of the hills are rounded, and covered only with grass and low stunted shrubs; the ravines are wooded, as on the Nílgeris (Neilgherries). The rounded and undulating appearance of this portion of the Shevaroy's contrasts markedly with the rugged peaks and wooded slopes about Yercaud. This difference is due chiefly to the Green Hills being capped with laterite, in some places of considerable thickness. Several coffee plantations have been opened by Europeans and Eurasians upon the Green Hills; and there is a fine expanse of tableland, partly under cultivation by the hill tribes, which has been pointed out by Dr. Macpherson, Inspector-General of Hospitals, as a site well adapted for a sanatorium for European troops. This site occupies about 250 acres of land, and appears to be eminently suited for building.

Shiár.—Mountain pass in Bashahr State, Punjab, over a southward spur of the Himálayas, which bound Kunáwar to the south. Lat. $31^{\circ} 19'$ N., long. $77^{\circ} 58'$ E. (Thornton). Magnificent prospect from the summit, embracing the Chor Mountain and the peaks of Jamnotri. Elevation above sea level, 13,720.

Shibi (Sibi).—Village in Týmúr District, Mysore; 15 miles north of Týmúr town. Pop. (1871), 754. Celebrated for a temple of Vishnu, after his name of Nara-sinha, erected by three brothers in the beginning of this century. It is a plain structure, surrounded by a high stone wall. The annual festival, held for 15 days from the full moon in the month of Mágh, is attended by 10,000 people, and supplies the occasion for a great deal of trade.

Shikárpur.—A British District in the Province of Sind, lying between 27° and 29° N. lat., and between 67° and 70° E. long. Bounded on the north by Baluchistán or the territory of the Khán of Khelát, the Frontier District of Upper Sind, and the river Indus; on the east by the Native States of Baháwalpur and Jáisalmír (Jeysulmere); on the south by Khairpur State and the Schwán Subdivision of Karáchi (Kurrachee) District; and on the west by the Khirthar Mountains. Area, according to the Parliamentary Abstract published in 1879, 8813 square miles; pop. (1872), 776,227. The District comprises the 4 Subdivisions of ROHRI, SHIKARPUR and SUKKUR, LARKHANA, and MEHAR. The administrative headquarters are at SHIKARPUR TOWN, which is also the most populous place in the District.

Physical Aspects.—The general aspect of Shikárpur District is that of a vast alluvial plain, broken only at Sukkur (Sakhar) and Rohri by low limestone hills, which tend to preserve a permanent bank for the Indus at those places. Towards the west, in the Mehar and Lárkhána Sub-Districts, rises the Khirthar range, with an extreme elevation of upwards of 7000 feet, forming a natural boundary between Shikárpur and Baluchistán. Large patches of salt land, known as *kalar*, occur

frequently, especially in the upper part of the District ; and towards the Jacobábád frontier, barren tracts of clay, and ridges of sandhills covered with caper and thorn jungle, constitute a distinctive feature in the landscape. The desert portion of the Rohri Sub-District, known as the *Registhán*, possesses extensive sandhills, bold in outline and often fairly wooded. The forests of Shikárpur cover a total area of 207 square miles.

History.—The Districts of Upper Sind can hardly be said to have a history separate from that of the whole Province. Before the Muhammadan invasion, in 712 A.D., this portion of Sind was ruled by a Bráhma race, with their capital at Aror (or Alor), 5 miles distant from the modern town of Rohri. Shikárpur continued for some time a dependency of the Ummayyid dynasty, and subsequently of that of the Abassides. In conjunction with the rest of Sind, it was conquered by Mahmúd of Ghazní, about 1025 A.D. ; but his rule was of short duration, being replaced, about 1032, by the Súmra dynasty. The latter was succeeded in its turn by the Samma family, and this again by the Arghúns ; for an account of all of which, see the article on SIND.

Upper Sind does not come into any prominence till the accession to power of the Kalhora dynasty, in the early part of the 18th century. Previous to this, the country, which had been annexed in 1591-92 to the Delhi Empire by Akbar, was ruled by a succession of governors ; and a powerful tribe, the Dáúdputras, had arisen and displaced the Mahars, an influential clan, whose chief town was then at Lakhi, 9 miles south-east of Shikárpur town. These Mahars had themselves some time before driven out the Jatois, a race of Baluchis, in a manner thus described by Captain (now Major-General) Sir F. G. Goldsmid, in his historical memoir of Shikárpur, written in 1854 :—‘ We learn that there were seven brothers of the tribe (Mahars) in Ubauro, near the present Baháwalpur frontier, of whom one, by name Jaisar, not finding a residence with his near kindred to accord with his views of independence, turned his steps to Bukkur, then occupied by the noted Mahmúd, governor, under Sháh Beg Arghún, of the fort in 1541 A.D. The Jatois, a race of Baluchis, held the country on the west bank of the river between Búrdika and Lárhána District. This included the town of Lakhi, then a flourishing place, so called from Lakhu, as Gosarji was from Gosar, and Adamji from Adam Jatoi. Jaisar crossed the river and took up his abode among the villages of this people. The Mahars and their new comrades disagreed ; but the former had a friend at court, one Músa Khán Mehr, who was a man of influence with Mahmúd, and obtained the assistance of some hundred men to quell the disturbance, by asserting the rights of his own side. The consequence was the subjection of the Jatois, and a partition of their country. Jaisar received the tract extending from Mehláni to Lárhána

as a free gift (*tindad* and *madad-mash*), on the condition that, after the lapse of a generation, one-tenth of the produce would be claimed by the Government. The Jatois obtained the northern allotment, from Mehláni to Búrdika, on payment, however, of the customary land tax. Jaisar Khán remained at Lakhi, which thus became, as it were, his property; and at his death, his son Akil, in conjunction with a brother, Bakhar, and a cousin, Wadera Suján Khán, determined on building a new town to replace the old one. The fort which they erected may still be traced. Suján also built a village called Marúlo, after his son Marú, now known as Wazirábád, from Sháh Wali, the Wazír of Ahmad Sháh Duráni, whose perquisite it in after years became.'

But the Mahars had to contend with the Dáúdputras, who were by profession both warriors and weavers. The results of the contest, and consequent foundation of the city of Shikárpur, are thus narrated by General Sir F. G. Goldsmid :—'The weavers (Dáúdputras) appealed to spiritual authority, as represented in the person of Pír Sultán Ibráhim Sháh, whose tomb still bears testimony to the fact of his existence. He was a holy man of eminence, and numbered the Mahars, as well as their opponents, among his disciples, and he moreover himself resided at Lakhi. He took up the cause of the appellants, and eventually obtained permission for them to resume their hunting in the Shikárgahs, from which they had been warned off by the Mahars. Again, however, they were stopped, and again did they seek the Pír for redress. The Mahars were summoned a second time, and ordered to desist. They remonstrated, and finally informed their venerable mentor that they would never spare the intruders till they had exterminated the whole body, or at least driven them from the vicinity of the Shikárgah, adding, "If you wish to be their comrade, good, be it so." Baffled and distressed, the Pír bethought him of the final resource in such cases. He invoked curses on the rebelling Mahars, and blessings upon the oppressed Dáúdputras. He told his *protégés* that they were as the iron sickle, and their enemies as grass or chaff, and promised them the victory in the event of an engagement. The plot prospered. The crisis drew on, and the battle became inevitable. According to the story of the sons of Dáúd, their ancestors on this occasion could only muster a force of 300 or 400 fighting men, while their opponents numbered 12,000. A sanguinary conflict ensued on the meeting of the hostile forces, which, after the most determined endcavours on either side, eventually terminated in favour of the Dáúdputras, who were left masters of the field. Strange to say, while some 3000 dead bodies of Mahars strewed the ground, but few were killed on the side of the victors. A vigorous pursuit succeeded this victory. It was known that the wealthy *zamíndárs* of Lakhi had *lákhs* of rupees concealed in that city. Thither went the Dáúdputras; and it is by no means

unlikely that, on that particular occasion, they found means of improving the condition of their financial and commissariat departments. The Pír received his successful pupils with as much mundane satisfaction as could be expressed by so holy a man. He congratulated them, and, mounting his palfrey,' continues General Goldsmid, 'he led the weavers to the scene of their exploits. He halted at the ground on which now stands the commercial city of Upper Sind. Muttering some mysterious words, which immediately instilled a dramatic awe into the hearts of the bystanders, he raised his hand high in the air, and gracefully dropped an iron nail, which had long been held there unnoticed. The nature of the movement brought the point well into the earth. It remained transfixed in an admirable position for the chief performer of the play. He pointed to the instrument upon which all eyes were drawn. "Here," said the Pír, "let a city be built, and let it bear the distinguished name of Shikárpur!" The air rang with shouts, and the proceedings terminated in the usual manner on such occasions. The jungle was cut and cleared; neighbours were summoned, threatened, and cajoled; the work proceeded with vigour and rapidity, and by degrees a town appeared. The town in due course became a city, noted for the wealth and enterprise of its merchants, the size and business of its *bázár*, a hot-bed of intrigue, debauchery, bribery, oppression, evil-speaking, and many other kinds of corruption; and so passed away the years till the dawn of the 18th century.'

The Kalhoras had, during the 17th century, been gradually laying the foundation of their subsequent sovereignty in Sind, and the career of Yár Muhammad, the first ruler of this line, is thus described by Goldsmid:—'Mírza Bakhtawar Khán, son of Mírza Panni, was ruler of Siwi, and held a large tract on the west bank of the Indus, in the environs of Shikárpur. Yár Muhammad, associated with Rájá Likki and Iltas Khán Brahui, recommenced aggressive measures by a movement in the country bordering on the Manchhar Lake. He possessed himself of Samtáni, expelling the Panhwars and their head-man, Kaisar; and despatched his brother, Mír Muhammad, to extend his acquisitions by a diversion in an opposite quarter. His objects were achieved with skill and rapidity. His career of conquest made Iltas leave him. "You have no need of me; heaven is on your side; that suffices," said the rough Brahui. Kandiáro and Lárhána were taken, among less important places. The latter had been held by Málik Alá Bakhsh, brother of Baktawar. The Mírza, upon these reverses, appealed to the Sháhzáda in Múltán, Moiz-ud-dín (afterwards Jahándar Sháh), who no sooner heard the report than he turned to the scene of disturbance. Then Baktawar's heart misgave him, for he did not wish to see the country entrusted to his charge overrun by the troops of his master. He had probably private and particular reasons for the objection

unknown to the historian. He prayed the prince to withhold his march; and on the refusal of his request, had actually the audacity to oppose the advancing hosts. He was slain, and Moiz-ud-din repaired to Bukkur. Yár Muhammad does not appear to have suffered severely for his offences; on the contrary, the Sháhzáda came gradually round to favour his views of aggrandizement. One after another, new governors were appointed for Siwi, which Province in course of time was handed over to the Wakíls of the Kalhoras. Yár Muhammad received the imperial title of Khúda Yár Khán.'

The reigns of the several Kalhora princes will be found described in some detail in the section treating of the history of the Province. During the Tálpur rule, various parts of Upper Sind, such as Búrdika, Rúpar, the town of Sukkur, and other places, which were dependencies of the Duráni kingdom, had, between the years 1809 and 1824, been gradually annexed to the possessions of the Khairpur Mírs, Sohráb, Rústam, and Mubárák. Shikárpur was the only spot that remained to Afghánistán; and that town eventually came into the peaceable possession of the Mírs in 1824, at a time when Abdul Mansúr Khán was the governor of the place, and when the Sikhs were said to be contemplating an attack upon it. Goldsmid thus refers to this circumstance in his memoir:—'Three or four months after the departure of Rahím Dil Khán, it began to be rumoured that the Sikhs were contemplating an attack upon Shikárpur. At this time the Chevalier Ventura was with a force at Derá Ghází Khán. The Mírs of Sind—Karam and Murád Ali of Haidarábád, and Sohráb, Rústam, and Mubárák of Khairpur—seeing that it would be of great advantage that they should at this juncture take the city into their own hands, deputed the Nawáb Wali Muhammad Khán Lughári to dispossess the Afgháns, and carry out the wishes of his masters. The Nawáb commenced by writing to Abdul Mansúr several letters to the following effect:—"Undoubtedly the Sikhs did wish to take Shikárpur, and were approaching for that particular purpose. Its proximity to the Mírs' possessions in Sind made it very inconvenient for them that it should fall into the hands of this people; moreover, the capture of the place, under the circumstances, would be disgraceful, or at least discreditable, and it was the part of wise men to apply a remedy in time when available. The Afgháns were not in a position to oppose the coming enemy; their Sardárs in Khorasán were in the habit of eating superior mutton, Pesháwar rice, luscious grapes, raisins, delicious cold melons, seedless pomegranates, and rich comfits, and of drinking iced water; it was on account of this application of cold to the body that a martial and lordly spirit possessed them, which it is not the property of heat to impart. It was, moreover, necessary to the well-being of their hardy constitution. While the army was coming from

Khorasán, the city would glide from their hands." A well-known Persian proverb was here judiciously interpolated, viz. On calling the closed fist to remembrance after the battle, it will be necessary to let the blow fall upon one's own head. "In fine, taking all things into consideration, how much better would it be for the Mírs to occupy Shikárpur; they were Muhammadans as well as the Afgháns. Once having driven away the Sikhs, and deprived the infidels of their dominions, Shikárpur was at no distance; let it then become the property of the Sardárs. Now, in the way of kindness, let them (the Afgháns) return to Khorasán, and join their comrades at table in discussing the *pilaus* and fruits, whereby cure is obtainable of this most destructive heat." Abdul Mansúr Khán, upon receiving these communications, became greatly perplexed, and thought of returning to Khorasán. The Mírs, much as they desired to take possession of the town, were obliged to content themselves with assembling an army without its walls, on the plea of protection against a Sikh invasion. They encamped in the Sháhi Bágh. The Nawáb sent for Júma Khán Barakzái, and through him opened fresh communications with the governor, and tried every artifice to persuade the latter to quit his post. Finding a bold stroke of diplomacy necessary, he urged that he would hold him responsible for the town revenues accruing after the date of the original proposition for transfer to the Mírs. This argument had the desired effect; Abdul Mansúr refused to refund, but agreed to abandon Shikárpur. In this interval, Diláwar, Khitmagar to the Nawáb, entered the city, and coming to the house of Shaukár Muya Rám, established his headquarters there, and caused the change of Government to be notified throughout the *bázár* and streets. The Mírs' followers came gradually in, and at length were regularly installed, and obtained the keys of the eight gates. The next day, Abdul Mansúr Khán, at Júma Khán's instigation, visited the Nawáb in the Sháhi Bágh. The latter, after much flattery and compliment, gave him his dismissal. The ex-governor repaired with his effects to Garhi Yásin, a town in the neighbourhood, and stayed there to execute some unfinished commissions. In a few days, the Nawáb ordered him to depart from thence, which he did, and was soon far on his way to Kandahár. Wali Muhammad felt relieved, and applauded his own handiwork, in that he had won a bloodless victory. He had deprived the Afgháns of a much-loved settlement, and added it to the possessions of the Mírs. The revenue was divided into seven shares; four became the property of the Mírs of Haidarábád, and three of their relatives of Khairpur. Kazim Sháh was the new governor.

In 1833, during the Tálpur rule, Sháh Shújá, the dethroned Afghán monarch, made an expedition into Upper Sind to recover his lost territory. He marched with a force *viâ* Baháwalpur towards Shikárpur.

He was met near Khairpur by Kāzim Shāh, the former governor of Shikārpur, and escorted to the city with all honour, where he was to stay forty days and receive 40,000 rupees (£4000). But though he took the money, he did not leave at the appointed time. Public feeling in Sind ran high. Those who declared for the Shāh on the west bank were taken under his especial protection. He appointed local officials, and commenced legislating for his Sindian *protégés*, treating them in the light of subjects. The climax was a burst of indignation from the offended Mírs, and a rising of their Baluch retainers. A Baluch army, under Mírs Mubárak and Zangí Khán, crossed the river at Rohri, and took up a position at Sukkur, while Shāh Shúja despatched a force of 2000 men under his lieutenant, Samandhar Khán, to meet it. The Mírs had been drawn up near the Iáláwáh Canal, which the Shāh's general attacked, throwing the Baluchis into instant confusion, and ultimately defeating them. This victory resulted in the payment to the Shāh by the Mírs of 4 *likhs* of rupees (say £40,000), and 50,000 rupees (£5000) for his officers of State, while 500 camels were made over for the king's use. The Shāh subsequently marched on his expedition against Kandahár, but being defeated by Dost Muhammad, he retreated to Sind and proceeded to Haidarábád, where he obtained sufficient money from the Mírs to enable him to return to Ludhiána, in the Punjab.

In 1843, on the conquest of the Province by the British, all Northern Sind, with the exception of that portion held by the Khairpur Mír, Alí Murád Tálpur, was formed into the Shikārpur Collectorate and the Frontier District. In the previous year (1842), the towns of Sukkur, Bukkur, and Rohri had by treaty been ceded to the British in perpetuity. In 1851, Mír Alí Murád Tálpur of Khairpur was, after a full and public inquiry, convicted of acts of forgery and fraud, in unlawfully retaining certain lands and territories which belonged of right to the British Government. The forgery consisted in his having destroyed a leaf of the Kurán in which the Naunáhar, concluded in 1842 between himself and his brothers, Mírs Nasir and Mubárak Khán, was written, and having substituted for it another leaf, in which the word 'village' was altered to 'district,' by which he fraudulently obtained possession of several large districts instead of villages of the same name. On 1st January 1852, the Governor-General of India (Marquis Dalhousie) issued a proclamation depriving the Mír of the districts wrongfully retained, and degrading him from the rank of *Rais* (or Lord Paramount). Of the districts so confiscated, Ubauro, Búldika, Mírpur, Saidábád, and other parts of Upper Sind on the left bank of the Indus, now forming the greater part of the Rohri Subdivision, were added to the Shikārpur Collectorate.

Population.—The population of Shikārpur District, according to the

Census of 1872, numbered 776,227, thus distributed:—Rohri Sub-division, with 354 villages, 217,515; Shikárpur and Sukkur, with 268 villages, 181,832; Lárkhána, with 494 villages, 234,575; and Mehar, with 343 villages, 142,305—total, 1459 villages and 776,227 inhabitants. Area, according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1879, 8813 square miles; density of population, 88 per square mile.

Administration.—The total revenue of Shikárpur District in 1873-74 amounted to £211,776, of which £190,630 was derived from imperial and £21,146 from local sources. The land tax, canal revenue, excise, stamps, and forests furnish the principal items. Shikárpur is administered by a Collector-Magistrate with Assistants; the Civil and Sessions Judge has his headquarters at Shikárpur town. The police force numbers 1131 officers and men, showing 1 policeman to every 9 square miles of area and to every 686 of the population. Schools (1873-74), 86, with 5881 pupils.

Shikárpur.—*Táluk* of the Sukkur (Sakhar) and Shikárpur Sub-District, Shikárpur, Sind. Area, 472 square miles; pop. (1872), 73,383; total revenue (1873-74), £14,235.

Shikárpur.—Chief town and municipality of Shikárpur District, Upper Sind. Lat. 27° 57' 14" N., long. 68° 40' 26" E.; connected by good roads with Jacobábád, from which it is distant 26 miles south-east, with Sukkur (Sakhar) 22 miles north-west, and Lárkhána 40 miles north-east. Situated in a tract of low-lying country, annually flooded by canal: from the Indus, the nearest point of which river is 18 miles west. The elevation of the town is only 194 feet above sea level. Two branches of the Sind Canal—the Chota Begári and the Ráiswah—flow on either side of the town, the former to the south, and the latter to the north. The soil in the immediate vicinity is very rich, and produces heavy crops of grain and fruit. The population (1872) numbers 38,107, of whom 14,908 are Muhammadans, 23,167 Hindus, 28 Christians, and 4 'others.' Shikárpur is the headquarters of the principal Government officials of the District, and contains the usual public buildings. The total number of police is 71. Municipal revenue (1873-74), £9105. The Municipal Act was brought into force in 1855, since which year great sanitary improvements have been effected. Before that time, Shikárpur was notorious for its unsightly appearance. The Stewartganj Market (so called after a popular District officer) is a continuation of the old *básár*, and is a commodious structure. To the east of the town are three large tanks, known as Sarwar Khán's, the Gillespie, and the Hazári tank. The climate is hot and dry; the rainfall for the twelve years 1862-1874 averaged only 5·15 inches. The trade of Shikárpur has long been famous, both under native and British rule, but it is the transit traffic which seems to be of the most importance. The town is situated on

one of the great routes from Sind to Khorasán *viâ* the Bolán Pass, and its commerce in 1841 was thus described by Postans :—‘Shikárpur receives from Karáchi, Márwár, Múltán (Mooltan), Baháwalpur, Khairpur, and Ludhiána—European piece-goods, raw silk, ivory, cochineal, spices of sorts, coarse cotton cloth, *kinkhabs*, manufactured silk, sugar-candy, cocoa-nuts, metals, *kiramí* (groceries), drugs of sorts, indigo and other dyes, opium and saffron; from Kachhi, Khorasán, and the north-west—raw silk (Turkestán), various kinds of fruit, madder, turquoises, antimony, medical herbs, sulphur, alum, saffron, assafoetida, gums, cochineal, and horses. The exports from Shikárpur are confined to the transmission of goods to Khorasán through the Bolán Pass, and a tolerable trade with Kachhi (Bágh, Gandáva, Kōtri, and Dadar). They consist of indigo (the most important), henna, metals of all kinds, country coarse and fine cloths, European piece-goods (chintzes, etc.), Múltáni coarse cloth, silks (manufactured), groceries and spices, raw cotton, coarse sugar, opium, hemp-seed, shields, embroidered horse-cloths, and dry grains. The revenue of Shikárpur derivable from trade amounted in 1840 to Rs. 54,736 (or say £5473), and other taxes and revenue from lands belonging to the town, Rs. 16,645 (or say £1664), making a total of Rs. 71,381 (or say £7138), which is divided among the Khairpur and Haidarábád Tálpur Mírs in the proportion of three-sevenths and four-sevenths respectively.’ Shikárpur is still the great centre of commerce in Upper Sind; although the town of Sukkur is believed to have drawn away much of its former trade with the Punjab, and the construction of a branch line of railway from that place to the entrance of the Bolán Pass will probably still further reduce its prosperity. In 1874, the imports of Shikárpur were valued at £264,190; the exports, £64,485. The principal manufactures are carpets and coarse cotton cloth. In the Government Jail, *postins* or sheepskin coats, baskets, reed chairs covered with leather, carpets, tents, shoes, etc. are made by the prisoners. From Shikárpur there are three postal routes, viz. to Jacobábád, to Sukkur, and southwards to Lárhána and Mehar. The town contains a normal and several vernacular schools, together with a high school, attended by 135 pupils. There are 8 Hindu-Sindi schools, with 1031 pupils; 3 schools for girls, with 128 pupils.

Shikárpur. — Flourishing town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 28° 17' N., and long. 78° 3' 15" E., on the Rámghát road, 13 miles south-east of Bulandshahr town. Pop. (1872), 11,150, consisting of 6227 Hindus and 4923 Muhammadans. Substantial, well-built houses, and handsome mosques. Great walled *sardí* (native inn), about 200 years old, through which the high-road passes. Founded about 1500 A.D. by Sikandar Lodí, as a hunting-lodge on a large scale, whence the town derives its name. Ancient mound,

known as the Tálpat Nagari, near the city. About 500 yards north stands a remarkable building, called *Bára Khamba*, or the Twelve Columns, containing 12 huge red-sandstone pillars, so massive that popular imagination attributes their erection to demons; but inscriptions show that the building really represents an unfinished tomb begun by Sayyid Fazl-ullá, son-in-law of the Emperor Farrukhsiyár, about the year 1718. Ruins of an old fort are traceable in the town. Residence of Chaudhri Lakshman Sinh, an Honorary Magistrate, who was conspicuous for his loyalty during the Mutiny of 1857.

Shikárpur.—*Táluk* in Shimoga District, Mysore. Area, 410 square miles, of which only 32 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 63,210, of whom 59,125 are Hindus, 4032 Muhammadans, 48 Jains, and 5 Christians; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £14,231, or 14s. 2d. per cultivated acre. Greatly overgrown with jungle, which gives shelter to many wild beasts. The most important crop and article of export is sugar-cane.

Shikárpur.—Municipal village in Shimoga District, Mysore; situated in lat. 14° 15' 40" N., and long. 75° 23' 30" E., near the right bank of the Choradi river, 28 miles north-west of Shimoga town. Headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name. Pop. (1871), 2093; municipal revenue (1874-75), £292; rate of taxation, 2s. 9d. per head. Said to have been originally called Maliyán-halli, and subsequently Mahádanpur. The present name was given in the time of Haidar Ali, on account of the abundance of game found in the neighbourhood. The old fort is now in ruins. A festival held for three days in April is annually attended by 8000 persons. Weekly fair on Saturdays.

Shikohábád.—South-western *tahsil* of Máinpuri District, North-Western Provinces, consisting of an almost level plain, intersected by undulating sandhills, and much cut up by ravines along its southern border, where it abuts upon the river Jumna (Jamuná). The Sirsa river flows through the midst of the *tahsil*, and the East Indian Railway traverses it from end to end. Area, 293 square miles, of which 200 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 143,869; land revenue, £25,191; total Government revenue, £27,721; rental paid by cultivators, £41,416.

Shikohábád.—Town in Máinpuri District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsil*. Pop. (1872), 10,069, consisting of 5366 Hindus and 4703 Muhammadans. Situated in lat. 27° 6' 5" N., and long. 78° 38' 10" E., on the Agra road, nearly 2 miles from Shikohábád station, on the East Indian Railway, and 34 miles west of Máinpuri town. The old town, a large straggling collection of houses, lies east and south of the main road; but the principal *bázár* lines the highway itself, and contains 9 *sardis* (native inns) for the accommodation of travellers. Ancient mound, once the site of a fort, now covered by

houses. Numerous temples and mosques. Birthplace of several Hindu and Musalmán saints. Handsome *tukhili*, police station, post office, school; telegraph office at railway station. Named after Prince Dára Shikoh, traces of whose residence, garden, and wells still remain. The British obtained possession of Shikohábád in 1801, and established a cantonment south of the town. In 1802, a Marhattá force under Fleury surprised the British detachment; after which the cantonment was removed to Máinpuri. Formerly a great emporium for raw cotton, but the trade has declined. Manufacture of sweetmeats and cotton cloth.

Shillong.—Chief town of the Khási and Jáintia Hills District, and administrative headquarters of the Chief Commissioner of Assam; situated in lat. $25^{\circ} 32' 39''$ N., and long. $91^{\circ} 55' 32''$ E., on a tableland 4900 feet above sea level, and 67 miles south by road from Gauháti (Gowhatty). The Census of 1872, taken before Shillong became the seat of the local government, shows a population of only 1363 inhabitants. Shillong first became the civil station of the Khási and Jáintia Hills in 1864, in substitution for Cherra Poonjee. In 1874, on the constitution of the Chief Commissionership of Assam, it was chosen as the headquarters of the new administration, on account both of its salubrity and its convenient position between the Brahmaputra and Surmá valleys. The Chief Commissioner permanently resides here, and also the heads of all the departments of Government. A considerable native population is already settled, which increases from year to year. Large sums of money have been expended on the erection of public buildings. A printing press has been established, from which issue all the official documents and reports of the Province. A church has been built, at which a chaplain officiates alternately with Gauháti. The nominal area of the station is 7 miles in length by $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile broad. An excellent water supply has been introduced through an aqueduct, which has its source in the neighbouring hill streams. Sanitary measures are stringently enforced. The cart-road from Gauháti, the old capital of Assam, on the Brahmaputra, was opened for traffic in 1877. The entire distance of 67 miles is accomplished by *tonga dák* in about two days; and the sanatorium is thus rendered easily accessible from the fever-stricken plains of the Brahmaputra valley. The gradients on this road are a model of engineering skill. In 1875, the cantonments at Shillong were occupied by the 43d Regiment of Assam Light Infantry, with a total strength of 935 men. A large weekly market is held in the *bászár*. The model farm established in the neighbourhood in 1873 has not proved successful, either from a financial or an agricultural point of view. (See *The Statistical Account of Assam*, vol. ii. p. 229.) The climate of Shillong is singularly mild and equable. A temperature higher than 80° F. is seldom recorded. Hoar-frost lies upon the ground almost every morning during the months of December, January, and February.

Shallow water occasionally freezes over, but snow never falls. Fires are necessary during the great part of the year, the fuel used being coal, obtained at great cost from the beds at Máo-beh-lyrkar. The price is about £3 per ton. The rainfall registered during the three years ending in 1876 averaged 83·65 inches a year. The prevailing diseases are dysentery, bowel complaints, and disorders of the liver; but when once European residents have passed through a short period of acclimatizing indisposition, they generally enjoy excellent health.

Shillong.—Mountain range in the Khási and Jaintia Hills District, Assam, overlooking the station of the same name. The highest peak (lat. $25^{\circ} 34' 18''$ N., long. $91^{\circ} 55' 43''$ E.) attains a height of 6449 feet above the sea, being the most elevated point in the entire District. The crown of the ridge is covered with sacred groves of large timber-trees.

Shimoga.—A District forming the north-western portion of the Nagar Division of Mysore, lying between $13^{\circ} 30'$ and $14^{\circ} 38'$ N. lat., and between $74^{\circ} 44'$ and $76^{\circ} 5'$ E. long. Estimated area, 3797 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1871, 498,976 souls. Bounded along the north and west by the Districts of Dhárwár and North Kánara, in the Bombay Presidency. The administrative headquarters are at SHIMOGA TOWN, on the left bank of the Tunga river, just above its junction with the Bhadra.

Physical Aspects.—The District constitutes part of the principal watershed of Southern India. The river system is twofold—the rivers in the east, the Tunga, the Bhadra, and the Varada uniting to form the Tunga-Bhadra, which ultimately falls into the Kistna, and so into the Bay of Bengal; while in the west, a few minor streams break through the barrier of the Western Gháts and reach the Kánara coast. The whole region is covered with hills and valleys, but it naturally divides into two distinct portions. The larger half, towards the west, known as the Malnád or hill country, gradually rises towards the Western Gháts, where isolated peaks attain a height of more than 4000 feet above sea level. The general elevation of the District is about 2000 feet; and towards the east it opens out into the Maidán or plain country, which forms part of the general plateau of Mysore. The Malnád presents a wealth of picturesque scenery and wild life. A park of giant timber-trees, overgrown with brilliant creepers, extends continuously for miles, only interrupted by glades of verdant grass; the towering mountains form a precipitous background; and wild animals of all kinds abound. Near the north-western frontier of the District, the Shirávati river bursts through the Western Gháts by the celebrated Falls of Gerseppa, which surpass any other waterfall in India, and, in the combined attributes of height, volume of water, and picturesque situation, have few rivals in the world. The river here is 250 yards wide, and throws itself over a

chasm 960 feet in depth in four distinct falls, one of which has an unbroken descent of 830 feet.

The mineral products include iron-ore, and laterite for building. Magnetic stones, occasionally found on the summits of the Gháts, are highly prized. In the valleys of the Malnád, the soil is a loose, sandy loam, very suitable for rice; in the north-east appears the black cotton-soil. The wealth of timber in the Malnád remains as yet unproductive, owing to the inaccessible nature of the country. The more valuable trees include *pún*, wild jack, ebony, *som*, the large *devadáram*, gamboge, and a species of cedar. In the centre of the District are found teak, sandal-wood, the areca, cocoa-nut and sago palms, bamboo, cardamoms, and the pepper vine. Farther to the east, large trees altogether disappear. An area of about 35 square miles has been reserved by the Forest Department, including a teak plantation; and trees in avenues are planted along the public roads. Among wild animals, bison are especially numerous in the *tdluk* of Ságar, where wild elephants are also occasionally seen. Tigers, leopards, bears, wild hog, *sámbar* and *chital* deer, and jungle sheep are common in the wooded tracts.

History.—The present area of Shimoga District has supplied more than one important city to Southern India. The oldest memorials are three copper plates, purporting to be land-grants of Janamejáya, the monarch to whom the *Mahábhárata* was recited. Considerable doubt has been thrown upon the genuineness of these inscriptions; and the dates to which they have been referred belong to epic legend rather than to history. Janamejáya is assigned to 1300 B.C. One of the plates bears the date 89 of the Yudishthira era, which would be equivalent to 3012 B.C., according to Mr. Lewis Rice.

Local history commences with the Kadambas, whose capital was at Banavasi, on the north-western frontier of this District, and whose dominions extended over great part of Kánara and Mysore. Banavasi is identified as one of the spots visited by a Buddhist missionary in 245 B.C., and as mentioned by the Greek geographer Ptolemy in the 2nd century A.D. In the 6th century, the Kadambas were overthrown by the Chalukya kings, under whom they long continued to govern as feudatories; and at about the same time a petty Jain kingdom was established at Humcha. The Chalukyas were in their turn expelled by the Kalachuryas, under whose protection the Lingáyát religion became predominant in Kánara. Shimoga District subsequently was included within the dominions of the Ballalas and the kings of Vijayanagar, who were successively suzerains over all Southern India. At the time of the decadence of the latter empire, many local chiefs or *pálegárs* succeeded in asserting their independence, among whom the Keladi and the Basvapatna families divided between them the area of this District. The Keladi family, who were Lingáyats, first established themselves at

Ikkeri about 1560, and subsequently transferred their residence to Bednúr, better known by the honorific appellation of Nagar. At one time they attained great power; but they were finally conquered by Haidar Ali in 1763, when their territory was annexed to Mysore. The Basvapatna chiefs were a less influential family, whose capital was at Tarikere, in the adjoining District of Kádúr. They also fell before the organized empire of Haidar Ali in 1761. After the death of Tipú, and the re-establishment of the old Hindu dynasty of Mysore in 1799, Shimoga District repeatedly became the scene of disturbances, caused by the mal-administration of the Deshastha Bráhmans, who had seized on the offices of government, and made themselves obnoxious to both the Lingáyats and the cultivators. These disturbances culminated in the rebellion of 1830, led by representatives of the old Keladi and Basvapatna families, which occasioned the direct assumption of the administration of the entire State by the British.

Population.—In 1838, a Report by Mr. Stokes estimated the population of the District to be 304,120 souls; and a *khána sumári* or house enumeration, in 1853-54, returned a total of 427,179. The regular Census of 1871 ascertained the number to be 498,976, showing an increase of 64 per cent. in the interval of thirty-three years, and nearly 17 per cent. in the later period of eighteen years, if the earlier estimates can be trusted. This last-mentioned rate of increase is lower than in any other District of Mysore. The area of the District is approximately taken at 3797 square miles, which yields an average of 131·4 persons per square mile, an average rising to 247 in the *tdluk* of Soráb. Classified according to sex, there are 258,446 males and 240,530 females; proportion of males, 51·79 per cent. There are, under 12 years of age, 88,179 boys and 85,045 girls; total, 173,224, or 35 per cent. of the District population. The occupation tables are scarcely trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that 133,112 persons are returned as connected with agriculture, and 22,307 with manufacture and arts. The religious division of the people shows—Hindus, 468,294, or 93·85 per cent.; Muhammadans, 25,598, or 5·13 per cent.; Jains, 4099, or 0·82 per cent.; Christians, 984, or 0·19 per cent.; and 1 Pársí. The Hindus are further subdivided, according to the two great sects, into 183,853 worshippers of Vishnu and 284,441 worshippers of Siva. The Bráhmans number 26,569, of whom the great majority belong to the Smarta sect; those claiming the rank of Kshattriyas are returned at 14,720, including 11,558 Marhattás and 1355 Rájputs; the Vaisyas are poorly represented by only 1098 persons, almost all Komatis. Of inferior castes, the most numerous are Wokligas (56,584), who are agricultural labourers; Idigas (49,987), whose caste occupation is that of toddy-drawers; and Sádars (44,881), of whom many are also cultivators. The Lingáyats, who have always been influential in this

part of the country, number 52,701. Out-castes are returned at 60,358; wandering tribes, 18,001; wild tribes, 5558. The Musalmáns, who muster strongest in the *táluk* of Shimoga, are mostly all described as Deccani Musalmáns of the Sunni sect. Out of the total of 984 Christians, 34 are Europeans and 35 Eurasians (chiefly residing on the coffee-plantations), leaving 915 for the native converts. According to another principle of classification, 118 are Protestants and 866 Roman Catholics.

The District contains 2829 populated towns and villages, with 2406 houses of the better class (or above £50 in value), and 88,526 of the inferior sort. Compared with the area and population, these figures yield the following averages:—Villages per square mile, 0.75; houses per square mile, 24; persons per village, 176; persons per house, 5.49. The only place in the District with more than 5000 inhabitants is SHIMOGA TOWN, the headquarters of the District, on the Tunga river; pop. (1871), 11,034. Its prosperity dates from the introduction of British rule. There are many sites of ruined cities in the District, which have been already alluded to. The chief are—Nagar or Bednúr, Ikkeri, and Keladi, all associated with a family of Lingáyat *pálegárs*; Basvapatna, the early residence of the Tarikere chiefs; the Jain ruins of Humcha; and Banavasi, with its Buddhist memorials. The most important modern towns, after Shimoga itself, are Chennagiri and Ságar. There are altogether eight municipalities in the District, with an aggregate municipal income, in 1874-75, of £4531.

Agriculture.—The staple food crop of the District is rice, which is especially cultivated in the terraced valleys of the Malnád or hill country. The names of 60 different varieties are enumerated. The crop is sown from April to July, and reaped from November to February. In some tracts the cultivation of 'dry crops' predominates. Of these, *rágí* (Eleusine coracana) is preferred by the natives for their own food, while rice is largely exported. Next to rice, the most important crop is sugar-cane, which is largely grown in the *táluk* of Shikárpur. The canes are planted from January to June, and gathered after a full twelve months. The juice is for the most part converted into jaggery. The tract about Nagar produces the finest areca-nuts in Mysore. Miscellaneous crops include oil-seeds, a great variety of vegetables and fruits, pepper, and cardamoms. The coffee zone of the District is estimated to extend over 1000 square miles, but a considerable portion of this area is not of the most favourable character. There are altogether 250 plantations, of which 6 are owned by Europeans. In 1861, an unsuccessful attempt was made to improve the indigenous production of cotton, by the distribution of American seed. The following agricultural statistics are merely approximate:—Out of the total area of 3797 square miles, only 699 are returned as under cultivation, and 702 as cultivable. The area under rice is 135,000 acres, with an out-turn

valued at £250,000; other food grains, 925,000 acres, with an out-turn of *rági* valued at £127,000; cotton, 10,500 acres; cocoa-nut and areca-nut, 18,000; coffee, 5000; sugar-cane, 2500 acres. The agricultural stock consists of 12,113 carts and 71,853 ploughs. Irrigation is carried on both from tanks and from channels artificially drawn from the rivers by means of anicuts or weirs. The total number of tanks is 8313, including the great reservoir of Sulekere, in the *taluk* of Chennagiri, which is 40 miles in circumference, and ranks as the second largest in Southern India. In this same neighbourhood are to be found the best cattle in the District; and there are several grazing-grounds for the *amrita mahál*, or royal breed maintained by the State. Buffaloes are largely used for agricultural purposes, and pack-bullocks are bred to carry the through traffic across the Gháts. The returns show a total of 385,216 cows and bullocks, and 44,399 sheep and goats.

Manufactures, etc.—The chief industries in the District are the weaving of coarse cotton-cloth and rough country blankets or *kambli*s, and the making of iron implements, brass-ware, pottery, and jaggery from the sugar-cane. Oil is expressed from a great variety of vegetable products. At certain localities are special manufactures of striped carpets, chintz, coarse brown paper, stone jugs, and rope from various fibres. The carving of sandal-wood constitutes a speciality of the *gúdi-gdrs* of Soráb, whose delicate and elaborate workmanship is considered superior to that of either Bombay or Canton. The chief articles turned out are caskets and cabinets, ornamented either with leaves and figures from the Hindu pantheon, or with a copy of any design that may be ordered. Carving of inferior merit is also produced in other villages of Shimoga. The manufacturing stock of the District is returned at 1700 looms, and 112 oil-mills. The trade of Shimoga is conducted with both the east and west coasts, and also with Bangalore. The chief exports are rice and other food grains, jaggery from the sugar-cane, areca-nuts, coffee, pepper, and iron articles. The imports received in exchange are European piece-goods, copper vessels, oils of various kinds, tobacco, betel-leaf, and gold and silver ornaments. There are four passes across the Western Gháts, of which the two most important leave the District near the Falls of Gersoppa and at the town of Agumbi. The local trade is mostly in the hands of the *Lingáyats*, whose centres of operation are at Ságar, Tirthahalli, and Nyampti. There are five weekly fairs, each attended by more than 1000 people; and several annual religious festivals, at which much buying and selling is done. There is no railroad in the District. The aggregate length of imperial roads is 225 miles, maintained at an annual cost of £3425; of District roads, 171 miles, costing £971.

Administration.—In 1873-74, the total revenue of Shimoga District, excluding education and public works, amounted to £189,918. The

chief items were land revenue, £111,454; *sáyar* or customs, £38,518; forests, £21,612. The District is subdivided into 8 *táluks* or fiscal divisions, with 43 *hoblis* or minor fiscal units. In 1870-71, the total number of estates on the register was 61,637. During the year 1874, the average daily prison population of the District jail was 426'99; and of the *táluk* lock-ups, 15'33: total, 442'32, of whom 35'93 were women, showing 1 person in jail to every 1129 of the population. In the same year, the District police force numbered 58 officers and 408 men; and the municipal police, 1 officer and 33 men: total, 500 men of all ranks, maintained at an aggregate cost of £4094. These figures show 1 policeman to every 8 square miles of area or to every 998 of the population; the cost being £1, 1s. 7d. per square mile and 2d. per head of population. The number of schools aided and inspected by Government in 1874 was 146, attended by 3465 pupils, being 1 school to every 26 square miles, and 6'9 pupils to every 1000 of the population. In addition, there were 80 indigenous schools, with 1009 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—Shimoga District offers a great variety of climate. The Gháts on the western frontier are only 8 miles distant from the sea; and here the south-west monsoon strikes with its full force, bringing a rainfall of more than 150 inches in the year. But the District stretches from the Gháts for about 100 miles towards the central tableland of Southern India; and the rainfall gradually diminishes, until it only amounts to about 25 inches at Chennagiri, most of which falls in October during the north-east monsoon. The sea-breeze from the west is distinctly felt as far as Shimoga town. During the two years 1873 and 1874, the maximum temperature registered was 92° F. in the month of April, and the minimum 75° in December. The average rainfall at Shimoga town, calculated over a period of thirty-eight years, is 30'35 inches; but as much as 170 inches has been known to fall within the year at Nagar.

Malarious fever of a persistent type prevails in the Malnád or hill country; and the natives appear to be even more exposed to its attacks than Europeans, when once the latter have become acclimatized. The vital statistics are far from trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that, out of the total of 7164 deaths reported in 1872, 3806 were assigned to fevers, 1276 to bowel complaints, 503 to small-pox, 32 to snake-bite or wild beasts, and 25 to suicide. In 1874, the dispensary at Shimoga town was attended by 237 in-patients, of whom 21, or 88'61 per 1000, died; the out-patients numbered 8393.

Shimoga.—*Táluk* in the District of the same name, Mysore. Area, 533 square miles, of which 147 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 79,031, of whom 69,936 were Hindus, 8433 Muhammadans, 78 Jains, and 584 Christians. Land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates

£10,023, or 2s. 2½d. per cultivated acre. The west and south is hilly and overgrown with jungle, which gives shelter to many wild beasts.

Shimoga (*Shiva-mukha*, 'face of Siva,' or *Shi-moge*, 'sweet-pot').—Chief town of the District, and headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name, Mysore; situated in lat. 13° 55' 30" N., and long. 75° 36' 5" E., on the right bank of the Tunga river, 171 miles by road north-west from Bangalore. Pop. (1871), 11,034, of whom 7659 are Hindus, 2801 Muhammadans, 51 Jains, and 523 Christians. Municipal revenue (1874-75), £2440; rate of taxation, 4s. 5d. per head. The early history is unknown. In 1791, a battle was fought in the neighbourhood, in which the Marhattás defeated a general of Tipú Sultán, and sacked the town. Its growth in wealth and prosperity dates from the time when it was made the headquarters of the District and of the Nagar Division. A weekly fair, held on Tuesdays, is attended by 1500 persons.

Shimshupa.—River in Túngkúr District, Mysore.—See SHAMSHA.

Shingnapur.—Municipal town in Sátára District, Bombay; situated in lat. 17° 51' 20" N., and long. 74° 42' 6" E., 46 miles east-by-north of Sátára. Pop. (1876), 1506. Municipal revenue, £293.

Shinor.—Town in Baroda State, Bombay. Pop. (1872), 6006.

Shiorájpur.—*Tahsil* in Cawnpore District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the south-west bank of the Ganges, and traversed by the Ganges Canal. Area, 268 square miles, of which 148 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 141,842. Land revenue, £27,537; total Government revenue, £30,289; rental paid by cultivators, £43,814.

Shirálí.—Port on the south-western coast of North Kánara District, Bombay. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1873-74,—imports, £190; exports, £1370.

Shiroda.—One of the petty States of Undsarviya, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue in 1876, £90; of which £12 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £1 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Shirol.—Town in Kolhápur State, Bombay. Lat. 16° 44' 10" N., long. 74° 38' 40" E.; pop. (1872), 8247.

Shirpur.—Town in Khándesh District, Bombay.—See SHERPUR.

Shivagangá.—*Zamindári* and town in Madura District, Madras.—See SIVAGANGA.

Shivagangá.—Hill in Bangalore District, Mysore.—See SIVAGANGA.

Shivner.—Hill fort in Poona District, Bombay; situated not far from the Harischandragarh, and near the fort of Junnar. Shivner is interesting as having been the birthplace of Sivají the Great. It was granted in 1599 to Sivají's grandfather, Máloji Bhonslá; and here, in 1627, Sivají was born. It was often taken and retaken; and once, in 1670, the forces of Sivají himself were beaten back by its

Mughal garrison. Besides its five gates and solid fortifications, it is celebrated for its deep springs. They rise in pillared tanks of great depth, supposed by Dr. Gibson to be coeval with the series of Buddhist caves which pierce the lower portion of the scarp. The fort commands the road leading to the Náneghát and Málsejghát, formerly the chief line of communication between this part of the Deccan and the sea-coast.

Sholágarh.—Town in Dacca District, Bengal. Lat. $23^{\circ} 33' 45''$ N., long. $90^{\circ} 20'$ E.; pop. (1872), 6525.

Sholangipuram.—Town in North Arcot District, Madras.—See SHOLINGHAR.

Sholápur.—A British District in the Deccan, Bombay, lying between $17^{\circ} 13'$ and $18^{\circ} 35'$ N. lat., and between $74^{\circ} 39'$ and $76^{\circ} 11'$ E. long. Area, according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1878-79, 3925 square miles; population in 1872, 662,986 souls. It is bounded on the north by Ahmednagar District, on the east by the Nizám's Dominions and Akalkot State, on the south by Kaládgi District and some of the Patwardhan States, and on the west by Sátára and Poona Districts and the States of Phaltan and Panth Pratinidhi. Bársi, in the north-east, is separated from the main District by a strip of the Nizám's territory; and on the west, in some places Patwardhan villages are included, and in others isolated Sholápur villages lie beyond the District limits. The administrative headquarters are at the city of SHOLAPUR.

Physical Aspects.—Except the Karmála and Bársi Subdivisions, where there is a good deal of hilly ground, the District is generally flat or undulating. It is very bare of vegetation, and presents everywhere a bleak, treeless appearance. The chief rivers are the Bhíma (Bheema) and its tributaries, the Mán, the Níra, and the Sína, all flowing towards the south-east. Besides these, there are several minor streams. Of the principal reservoirs, Ekrúk and Siddheswar are near Sholápur city, one is at Koregáon, and one at Pandharpur. Wells also to some extent supply water for gardening and drinking purposes. The rainfall being very uncertain, a scarcity of water is annually felt during the hot weather. Stunted *bábuls* and mangoes, and a few *níms* (*Azadirachta indica*) and *pípals* (*Ficus religiosa*), are the only timber-trees found in the District. As these afford no cover, the District is without wild animals of the larger kinds.

History.—Sholápur is one of the Districts which formed the early home of the Marhattás, and the birthplace of the dynasty. It is still a great centre of Marhattá population and mercantile activity. As full an account of the rise and progress of the Marhattá power as is consistent with the scope of this work will be found in the article on POONA DISTRICT, and further local details are given in the notice of the adjacent District of SATARA. An excellent monograph has been written on these three Districts by W. W. Loch, Esq., of the Bombay Civil Service.

Sholapur formed part of the Peshwá's dominions, until the downfall of his dynasty in 1818, and the incorporation of his territories by the East India Company in the Bombay Presidency. This District was at first included with that of Poona, but was erected into a separate Collectorate in 1838. Since then its progress has been rapid. Roads have been constructed, and the District is now traversed by the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. From time to time its prosperity receives checks owing to drought, to which its situation and the treeless surface of the country expose it. It suffered especially in the famine of 1877, when it was the first District to manifest distress in the Bombay Presidency. Extensive relief works were at once opened, and every possible means were taken to avert the starvation of the people. Much has been done by means of tanks to protect the husbandman from the cruel vicissitudes of the seasons; but the situation and physical characteristics of Sholapur will always render it liable to the natural calamities arising from drought.

Population.—The Census of 1872 was taken on an area of 3925 square miles, and showed a total population of 662,986 persons, living in 649 towns and villages and 109,826 houses. Density of population, 168·91 per square mile; square miles per village, 5·88; houses per square mile, 27·98; persons per village, 1021·55; persons per house, 6·04. Classified according to sex, there were 341,450 males and 321,536 females, proportion of males, 51·4 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 113,603; total children, 237,204, or 35·77 per cent. 12 years—males, 217,629, and females, 208,153; total, 425,782, or 64·23 per cent. Classified according to religion, 92·58 per cent, were returned as Hindus; 48,746, or 7·34 per cent, as Musalmáns; 319 Christians; 62 Pársis; and 9 'others.' Of Hindus, the chief classes are Bráhmans, Kunbis, and Lingáyats. Bráhmans are employed as priests and Government servants; the Kunbis are, for the most part, peasants; and the Lingáyats are traders, shopkeepers, and weavers.

Agriculture—Black soil, rich and capable of retaining moisture, prevails throughout the Bársi Subdivision, and, to some extent, along the banks of rivers and water courses in all parts of the District. In other places there is a large proportion of grey, barad, and red soil, the latter being very poor. Of 2,175,711 acres, the total area of Government cultivable land, 2,138,788 acres, or 98 per cent., were taken up for cultivation in 1877-78. Of these, 478,068 acres were fallow, or under grass. Of the remaining 1,660,720 acres under actual cultivation (17,954 acres of which were twice cropped), grain occupied 1,387,697 acres, or 83 per cent, more than three-fourths of which were under *jowar* (Sorghum vulgare), the staple food of the people; pulses covered 124,064 acres;

or 7 per cent.; oil-seeds occupied an equal area; fibres were grown on 36,518 acres, or 2 per cent., half of which was under cotton; miscellaneous crops, such as tobacco, sugar-cane, chillies, etc., occupied 16,461 acres, or nearly 1 per cent.

Trade, Communications, etc.—Besides nearly 150 miles of the Great Indian Peninsula line from Poona, entering the District at Pomalvadi in the north-east corner, and crossing in a south-easterly direction towards Gulbarga in the Nizám's Dominions, there are roads from Sholapur city to Pandharpur, Akalkot, Haidarábád (Hyderabad), and Bársi; from Pandharpur to Sátára and Karád; from Bársi road station to Tembhurni on one side, and to Bársi on the other, and thence to the Yedsi Pass; and, lastly, from Jeúr station to Karmála.

Since the opening of the railway in that portion of the District between the Nizám's Dominions and Poona, trade has greatly increased. Next to cotton, a large proportion of which comes from without, the chief exports are oil, oil-seeds, butter, turmeric, and cotton cloth. The imports are salt, piece-goods, yarn, gunny-bags, and iron-ware.

After agriculture, the chief industries of the District are spinning, weaving, and dyeing. The silks and finer sorts of cotton cloth—such as *motis* and women's robes—prepared in Sholapur bear a good name. *Motis* are also woven in large numbers. Besides hand-loom weaving, there is a spinning and weaving mill, with 20,336 spindles and 170 looms, established at Sholapur city. Oil-presses of the native type are found in many places, and saltpetre is manufactured at *Mhars* and *Mánga*.

The total revenue raised in 1877 under all heads, including local funds, amounted to £239,463, showing, on a population of 662,000, an incidence per head of 6s. 6d. The land tax forms the principal source of revenue, yielding £191,077, or 78 per cent. of the total amount. The other chief items are stamps, excise, and local funds. The District local funds, created since 1863 for works of public utility and rural education, yielded in 1877 a total of £7361. There are 8 municipalities, containing an aggregate population of 112,667 persons. Their receipts amounted to £13,706, and the incidence of taxation varied from 3½d. to 4s. 2½d. per head. The administration of the District in revenue matters is entrusted to a Collector and 4 Assistant Collectors, three of whom are covenanted civilians. The District is provided with the court of a senior Assistant Judge. For the settlement of civil disputes, there are in all, besides this, 4 courts. The number of suits disposed of in 1874 amounted to 5597. Seventeen officers share the administration of criminal justice. The total strength of the regular police force for the protection of person and property consisted of 97 officers and 442 constables, giving 1 man to every 1230 of the population. The total cost was £8722, equal to

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£1, 18s. per square mile of area and $3\frac{1}{8}$ d. per head of population. The number of convicted persons was 4817, being 1 person to every 137 of the population. There is one jail in the District. Compared with 45 schools and 516 pupils in 1865, there were, in 1877, 115 schools, with a roll-call of 4648 names, or, on an average, 1 school for every 5 villages. Two vernacular papers were published in 1877-78.

Medical Aspects. — The climate, except from March to May, is healthy and agreeable. In the hot season, the mean temperature is 86° F., very hot and oppressive in the day-time, but cool at night. The rainy season is pleasant: the sky is more or less overcast, and the rain falls in heavy showers, alternating with intervals of sunshine. The rainfall, which during the last twenty-six years varied from 18 to 40 inches, and averaged 26 inches, is unequally distributed, the fall in the western Subdivisions being very scanty compared with that in the east. During the cold season, from November to February, the atmosphere, with keen easterly and north-easterly winds, is clear and bracing.

Besides fever of an intermittent type, skin diseases such as guinea-worm, itch, and ringworm are prevalent in the Bársi and Karmála Subdivisions, brought on chiefly by the badness of the well water. Fever makes its appearance at the end of the rainy season, and is due in a great measure to the sudden change of climate. Cholera used every year to break out at Pandharpur during the periodical fairs; but improved sanitary arrangements have to some extent put a stop to this.

In 1877, 4 dispensaries and the civil hospital at Sholápur afforded medical relief to 1038 in-door and 31,573 out-door patients, and 13,898 persons were vaccinated.

Sholápur.—Chief town of Sholápur District, Bombay; situated in lat. 17° 40' 18" N., and long. 75° 56' 38" E., on the plain of the Sína, 150 miles by rail from Poona. Area, $7\frac{3}{4}$ square miles; pop. (1872), 53,403. The small but strongly built fort in the south-west corner of the town, surrounded by a ditch, is ascribed to Hassan Gangu, the founder of the Báhmání dynasty (1345). On the dissolution of that kingdom in 1489, Sholápur was held by Zein Khán. But during the minority of his son it was, in the year 1511, besieged and taken by Kamál Khán, who annexed it, with the surrounding Districts, to the Bijápur kingdom. In 1523, Sholápur formed part of the dowry of Ismáíl Adíl Sháh's sister, given in marriage to the King of Ahmednagar. But not being handed over to the Ahmednagar kingdom, it formed for forty years a source of constant quarrels between the two dynasties, until it was given back to Bijápur as the dowry of the Ahmednagar princess Chánd Bísí (1563). On the overthrow of the Bijápur kingdom (1686), Sholápur fell to the Mughals, from whom it was taken by the Marhattás. At the close of the war with the Peshwá in 1818, it was stormed by General Munro. Since then, the town, no longer exposed to the raids of highway robbers, has been

steadily increasing in importance. Its convenient situation between Poona and Haidarábád has made it, especially since the opening of the railway in 1859, the centre for the collection and distribution of goods over a large extent of country. The chief industry of Sholápur is the manufacture of silk and cotton cloth, more than 5000 persons being engaged as hand-loom weavers, spinners, and dyers. A steam-weaving and spinning-mill has also lately been established in the town.

Besides the courts of the Subdivisional and District revenue officers, there are the senior assistant's and the subordinate judge's courts. The houses are mostly built of mud, but sometimes of stone and burnt bricks, and are covered with flat roofs. On account of the absence of any high ground in the neighbourhood, Sholápur is on all sides exposed to the winds. The climate, except during the months of March, April, and May, is agreeable and healthy. The municipality, established in 1853, enjoys an average revenue of £5061; the incidence of taxation amounting to 1s. 9d. per head of the population.

Sholavandán.—Town in Madura District, Madras; situated in lat. $10^{\circ} 2' 30''$ N., and long. $78^{\circ} 2'$ E., 12 miles from Madura city, on the Vaigai river. Pop. (1871), 2970, inhabiting 525 houses. The town was built in 1566 by a colony of Vallálars, relatives of the Vijayanagar Governor of the South. The fort commanded a pass on the main road from Dindigul to Madura, and was occupied by Muhammad Yusaf in 1757, to cover the operations of Calliaud against Madura. In the same year, it was captured by Haidar Ali, and retaken by the British.

Sholinghar (*Sholangipuram*).—Town in North Arcot District, Madras. Lat. $13^{\circ} 7'$ N., long. $79^{\circ} 29'$ E.; pop. (1871), 4956, residing in 759 houses. A station on the Madras Railway. The scene of one of Coote's greatest victories in 1781, when, for the third time within a few months, acting on the offensive, with vastly inferior numbers, he drove Haidar Ali's picked troops before him. There is a famous temple here, perched on a high rock, which is much frequented by pilgrims.

Shorápur.—Formerly a tributary State of the Nizám; situated in the south-west corner of the Haidarábád territory, and since 1860 an integral part of His Highness' Dominions. Bounded on the north by Haidarábád territory, and on the south by the Kistna, which separates it from the Raichúr Doáb. Chief town, Shorápur; lat. $16^{\circ} 31'$ N., long. $76^{\circ} 48'$ E. By the treaty of 1800, the British Government engaged to enforce 'the just claims' of the Nizám against Shorápur. In 1823, the British Government, having succeeded to the rights of the Peshwá, relinquished the tribute due to it from the Shorápur Rájá, on condition of the Rájá abandoning certain *rusúms* (revenue claims) on the neighbouring British Districts. A succession dispute in 1828 commenced a long series of disasters for Shorápur. The State fell into hopeless arrears to its suzerain the Nizám, and in 1841-42 the portion

of it to the south of the Kistna was ceded to His Highness in commutation. A British officer, Captain Gressly, was in the same year deputed to report on the Shorápur State. He was succeeded by Captain Meadows Taylor (1842), into whose hands the practical administration fell, as the sequel of a series of *zanána* intrigues, domestic quarrels, and acts of extravagance by members of the Rájá's family. The improvements effected by Captain Meadows Taylor, and the era of prosperity and order which he introduced at Shorápur, form a brilliant example of the administration of a Native State by a British officer. They are recorded without exaggeration in Meadows Taylor's *Story of My Life*. On his departure in 1853, the affairs of the State began to slip back into their former condition, and the old unsatisfactory relations between Shorápur and the Nizám revived. The Shorápur Rájá threw in his lot with the rebels in the Mutiny of 1857-58, was sentenced to deportation, and shot himself. By the British treaty of 1860 with the Nizám, Shorápur State was ceded to His Highness in full sovereignty, and has since been an integral part of the Nizám's Dominions.

Shorkot.—*Tahsil* of Jhang District, Punjab.

Shorkot.—Ancient town in Jhang District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsil* of the same name; situated in lat. 30° 50' N., and long. 72° 6' E., among the lowlands of the Chenáb, 36 miles south-west of Jhang town. Pop. (1868), 3153. Stands upon a huge mound of ruins, surrounded by a wall of large antique bricks, and so high as to be visible for 8 miles around. Gold coins are frequently washed out of the ruins after the rains. General Cunningham identifies Shorkot with a town of the Malli attacked and taken by Alexander, and visited by Hiouen T'sang ten centuries later. Local tradition attributes its foundation to one Rájá Shor, of whom only the name is known. General Cunningham infers from the evidence of coins, that the town flourished under the Greek kings of Ariana and the Punjab, as well as under the Indo-Scythian dynasties up to 250 A.D. It was probably destroyed by the White Huns in the 6th century, and reoccupied in the 10th by the Bráhmaṇ kings of Kábul and the Punjab. The modern town is a place of little importance.

Shoung-gyo-gún (*Shoung-gyo-goon*).—Revenue circle in the Shwe-doung township of Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 3799; gross revenue, £757.

Shrávan-belgolá (lit. '*Tank of the Srávans or Jains*').—Village in Hassan District, Mysore; situated in lat. 12° 51' 10" N., and long. 76° 31' 31" E., between two rocky hills called Chandra-betta and Indra-betta. Pop. (1871), 1697,—viz. Hindus, 1231; Muhammadans, 56; and Jains, 410. According to Jain tradition, Bhadrá Báhu, one of the six immediate disciples of the founder of their religion, died here while leading a colony from Ujjain into Southern India. He

is said to have been accompanied by the celebrated Emperor Chandragupta, who had abdicated the throne and adopted the life of a hermit. These events, borne out by a rock inscription of great antiquity, are assigned to the 4th century B.C. The grandson of Chandragupta is also related to have visited the spot. On the summit of Chandra-betta stands the colossal statue of Gomateswara, 60 feet high, surrounded by numerous buildings. The hill itself is 3250 feet above sea level. An inscription on the foot of the statue states that it was erected by Chámunda Ráya, whom tradition places about 60 B.C. The surrounding enclosures bear the name of Gangá Ráya, concerning whom even legend is silent. The statue is nude, and stands facing the north. The face has the serene expression usually seen in Buddhist statues; the hair is curled in short spiral ringlets over the head, while the ears are long and large. The figure is treated conventionally, the shoulders being very broad, the arms hanging down the sides with the thumbs turned outwards, the waist small. The feet are placed on the figure of a lotus. Representations of ant-hills rise on either side, with figures of a creeping-plant springing from them, which twines over the thighs and arms, terminating in a tendril with bunches of fruit. These symbolize the complete spiritual abstraction of a *yogi*. According to the most reasonable hypothesis, the statue must have been cut out of a rock which projected above the hill; or perhaps the solid summit of the hill may have been itself cut away. The workmanship is still as sharp as if the stone had been newly quarried. Within the enclosure are 72 small statues of a similar description in compartments. On the face of the opposite rock of Indra-betta are inscriptions cut in ancient characters a foot long. Srávan-belgolá is known to have been an ancient seat of Jain learning, and is still the residence of the chief *gúrú* of that sect; but the establishment was deprived of many of its privileges and emoluments by Tipú Sultán. There is a considerable manufacture of brass utensils, which are exported to distant parts.

Shrigonda.—Town in Ahmednagar District, Bombay.—See SRI-GONDA.

Shrivardhan.—Town in Janjira State, Bombay.—See SRIWARDHAN.

Shujábád.—*Tahsil* of Múltán District, Punjab. Area (1868), 309 square miles; pop. (1868), 58,889; persons per square mile, 190.

Shujábád.—Municipal town in Múltán District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsil* of the same name; situated in lat. $29^{\circ} 53' N.$, and long. $71^{\circ} 20' E.$, about 3 miles from the present bed of the Chenáb. Pop. (1868), 6095, consisting of 3950 Hindus, 1964 Muhammadans, 27 Sikhs, and 154 'others.' Fort built by Shujá Khán, one of the Nawábs of Múltán under Ahmad Sháh Duráni, in whose time the town possessed some importance. Local trade centre for the richest portion of the District. *Tahsili*, police station, post office. Municipal

revenue in 1875-76, £656, or 2s. 1d. per head of population (6268) within municipal limits.

Shútar Gardan.—Mountain pass in Afghánistán, dividing the Kurám and Logar valleys. An important position, commanding the road to Kábul, and the possession of which, on the occasion of the retributive campaign after the massacre of Sir Louis Cavagnari in September 1879, enabled General Sir F. Roberts' force to advance on that city and occupy it almost without opposition. The ascent of the pass from the Kurám or Indian side is slight, though the descent into the Logar valley is long and very steep.

Shwe An-daw.—Pagoda in Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated a few miles north of Thayet town. It dates from the time of Nara-pad-di-tsi-thú, King of Burma (about 1167 A.D.), who is noted for his piety, his communication with Ceylon, and his frequent journeys through his dominions. He is said to have received from Ceylon a sacred tooth of Gautama, and while escorting it to his capital, he was warned by signs and portents to deposit it at the place where this pagoda now stands.

Shwe Ban-daw.—Revenue circle in the Mye-dai township of Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 4761; gross revenue, £543. Products—rice, cotton, sesamum, maize, and catch.

Shwe-Dagon.—The great Pagoda of Rangoon, British Burma, and the most venerated object of worship in all the Indo-Chinese countries. Lat. 16° 46' 40" N., long. 96° 13' 50" E. The annual festival in March is attended by pilgrims from all parts; and so great is its renown, that the King of Siam, not long ago, had a handsome *zayat* or resting-place built near. The pagoda stands upon a mound partly natural, partly artificial, in the angle formed by the junction of the Rangoon and Pegu rivers. This mound has been cut into two terraces, the upper of which is 166 feet above the level of the ground, and 900 feet long by 685 wide. The southern approach is covered with handsomely carved wooden roofs, supported on massive teak and masonry pillars, and has at its foot two immense griffins, one on each side. From the centre of the platform rises the profusely gilt, solid brick pagoda, springing from an octagonal base, with a perimeter of 1355 feet, and a gradually diminishing spheroidal outline, to a height of 321 feet, and supporting a gilt iron network *hti* or umbrella in the shape of a cone, and surrounded with bells. The space around the pagoda is left free for worshippers; but all round the edge of the platform are numerous idol-houses, facing inwards, containing images of Gautama in the usual sitting posture, and in a previous existence receiving from Dipengara, one of his predecessors, the prophetic announcement that he too should, after the lapse of four *theng-khye* (a *theng-khye* consists of a unit followed by 140 cyphers), and the creation and destruction of

100,000 worlds, attain to Buddha-hood. Between these idol-houses and the main edifice are several bells, and Ta-khwon-daing or sacred posts, each being surmounted by the figure of a Karawaik (the carrying bird of Vishnu). The bells are struck by the worshippers with deer antlers, left near for that purpose. On the east side is an enormous bell, 7 feet $7\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter at the mouth, which was presented by Bho-daw Bhúra. I have mentioned that *theng-kye* is taken to mean a unit followed by 140 cyphers. Strictly speaking, it is a corruption of the Sanskrit *asankhya*, meaning innumerable.

The whole of the early history of this pagoda must be rejected as untrustworthy, but the legend concerning its erection assigns it to the year 588 B.C. The story goes that it was built by two brothers who were guided by a *nát* or spirit into the presence of Gautama, who presented them each with four hairs, and bade them deposit them with certain other relics which had been left by his predecessors on a mountain in Pegu. The guardian of the earth pointed out this peak to the young men, and the sacred gifts were deposited on it under a tree. The first accounts in which any confidence can be placed are those relating to Sheng-tsaw-bú, a queen who ruled early in the 16th century. The pagoda has been several times added to and re-gilt—the last time in 1871, when, with the sanction of the British Government, the King of Burma sent a new *hti* from Mandalay, valued at £62,000. The name Shwe-Dagon is derived from the Talaing word *takín*, meaning ‘a tree or log lying athwart,’ which has been corrupted in Burmese into Dagon or Dagon. The Burmese word *shwe* means ‘golden.’ During the first Burmese war in 1825-26, the site of the pagoda was abandoned by the Burmese on the fall of Rangoon, and occupied by British troops till the close of the war. In 1852, during the second war, the Burmese anticipated that the British would attack from the south side, which was accordingly defended. But an entrance was effected by our troops on the east, and the great Shwe-Dagon pagoda fell a second time into the hands of the British. The hill on which it stands has been strongly fortified.

Shwe-doung.—Revenue circle in the Meng-dún township of Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 82 square miles, almost entirely uncultivable waste; pop. (1876-77), 4394; land revenue, £296, and capitation tax, £291. Products—rice, sesamum, cotton, maize, cutch, and vegetables.

Shwe-doung.—Township in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Lat. $18^{\circ} 28'$ to $18^{\circ} 50'$ N., long. $95^{\circ} 10'$ to $95^{\circ} 23'$ E. Area, 200 square miles; pop. (1876-77), 25,901; land revenue, £2743, and capitation tax, £2835. It comprises 17 revenue circles, each under a *thúgyi*. Bounded by Henzada on the south, and by the Irawadi river on the west. The eastern limit is marked by the low

Toung-gyi Hills, which extend from near Prome town into Tharawadi District, and are covered with *eng* trees, forming a tract called the Eng country. The township consists for the most part of a plain, almost entirely under rice. Tobacco and vegetables are grown along the bank of the Irawadi. In the north-east, below Shwe-doung town, palm-trees are cultivated, and from these are extracted large quantities of *tari*. In the rains, the south-west corner of the township is separated by the Dún-ka-la channel from the Irawadi, and becomes an island. About 5 miles south of Shwe-doung is the Theng-bhyú Lake, supplied by the Irawadi, and 15 feet deep in the rains. The great northern road from Rangoon enters the township through the Eng-daing, and strikes the Irawadi at Shwe-doung, whence it proceeds northwards to Prome. This township contains the Shwe-nat-toung Pagoda, the scene of an annual religious fair.

Shwe-doung.—Chief town of the above township; situated about 8 miles below Prome, on the right bank of the Irawadi, and on the great road from Rangoon to the north. Lat. $18^{\circ} 42' N.$, long. $95^{\circ} 17' 30'' E.$ Divided into two quarters by the Kúla-khyoung. This town is of recent growth, the old Shwe-doung or Shwe-doung Myoma, mentioned in ancient records, being now only a village some miles farther south, opposite Pa-doung. Pop. (1864), under 5000; in 1877-78, returned at 13,588. Accessible by large boats, Shwe-doung forms the port of the P'oung-day and Eng-ma rice plains, the produce of which is largely sent to Prome. The town contains the courts and usual public buildings; also numerous pagodas, monasteries, and *zayats*, or rest-houses.

Shwe-doung Myoma.—Revenue circle in the Shwe-doung township of Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Rice cultivation is not much carried on, except in the south-west. The villages are chiefly situated on the bank of the Irawadi. At the northern end of Theng-bhyú Lake in this circle is old Shwe-doung, the present town of that name having grown up since the annexation of Pegu in 1853. Pop. (1876-77), 3332; gross revenue, £606.

Shwe-gnyoung-beng.—Revenue circle in the Tha-boung township of Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 45 square miles; lying between the Shwe-gnyoung-beng and Da-ga rivers. Consists almost entirely of a waste plain, gradually undulating towards the north; rice cultivation in the west. Pop. (1876-77), 2426, largely engaged in fishing; gross revenue, £857.

Shwe-gnyoung-beng.—River in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Falls into the Bassein river in lat. $17^{\circ} 1' N.$, and long. $94^{\circ} 55' E.$, and communicates with the Da-ga by several creeks. It is from 100 to 150 feet wide in its lower portion, but only navigable by large boats during the rains.

Shwe-gún.—Revenue circle in the Than-lweng Hlaing-bhwai township of Amherst District, Tennasserim Division, British Burma; on the left bank of the Salwín, along which is a teak tract. Pop. (1876-77), 1994.

Shwe-gyeng.—A District in the Tenasserim Division, British Burma; lying in the valley of the Tsit-toung (Sitoung) river. Area, 5565 square miles; pop. (1872), 129,485. Bounded on the north by Toung-ngú District; on the east by the Poug-loung range and the Salwín Hill Tracts; on the south by Amherst District; and on the west by the Pegu Yoma Hills. After the second Burmese war, this District included the Salwín and Tha-htún Subdivisions of Amherst District, and was first called the Martaban Province, and then Martaban District. In 1864-65, Martaban was joined to Amherst, and the District was called Shwe-gyeng. In 1872, the Subdivision of Rwon-za-leng was formed into an independent jurisdiction now known as the Salwín Hill Tracts. Several small transfers have taken place since. Headquarters at SHWE-GYENG TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—In the north, the District is highly mountainous, both the eastern and western ranges sending down numerous spurs which on the east approach to within a few miles of the Tsit-toung. Both chains diminish in height towards the south, and the Pegu Yomas recede, leaving a wide stretch of good land. South of Kyaikhto, a town at the southern base of the Poug-loung Hills, the whole country between the Tsit-toung and the Bhí-leng consists of vast monotonous plains covered with scrub forest or almost impenetrable elephant grass. At places, a pagoda, or a group of houses surrounded by a few tall palms, marks the village of some fishermen or salt-boilers, who gain a precarious livelihood from the muddy waters of the tidal creeks or the salt-impregnated soil. At high tides, the whole of the coast for miles inland is inundated; and so rapidly does the sea advance over the flats, that little or no chance is offered to the fisherman or turtle-seeker should he have neglected the warning sound of the approaching waters. During the dry season, the upper portion of these plains is easily passable by carts; but in the rains they become one vast sheet of water, with the tops of the tall elephant grass showing above, and almost concealing the pagodas and villages, by which alone the boatman can guide his course. Both the Pegu Yomas and the Poug-loung Mountains are densely wooded, and drained by small perennial streams. The passes over the former are mere tracks winding up ravines, and along the crests of spurs. Across the Poug-loung range are three principal routes,—the northern runs up the valley of the Baw-ga-ta and across the Thayet-peng-keng-dat Hill to Kaw-lú-do, the northern police-post in the Salwín Hill Tracts; the central road goes up the valleys of the Mút-ta-ma and the Már-dai to Pa-pwon; the southern leads from the source of the Mút-ta-ma to Hpa-wa-ta. The Poug-loung range, at the Tsek-le Hill opposite Shwe-gyeng, attains a height of about

4000 feet, and terminates above Keng-rwá in Ke-la-tha, a peak crowned by a conspicuous pagoda, said to have been founded many years ago at the same time as Kyaik-htf-yo, above Tsit-toung. The chief rivers of Shwe-gyeng District are the TSIT-TOUNG (Sitoung), also called the Toung-ngú and the Poung-loung; and the BHI-LENG or Dún-won. The Tsit-toung rises in Independent Burma, and enters Shwe-gyeng at its northern end, and, after an exceedingly tortuous course, falls into the Gulf of Martaban by a funnel-shaped mouth 7 or 8 miles wide, up which the spring-tides rush with great violence, forming a bore. This river is navigable throughout its entire length in this District by large boats and steam launches. A chopping sea follows the rolling crest of the bore, and sometimes wrecks a boat in a few minutes. The most important affluents of the Tsit-toung are—the Kwon, rising in the Pegu Yomas, and, after an east-south-east course of 60 miles, joins the main stream near Anan-baw; the Re-nwe, which flows into the Tsit-toung, after a south-easterly course of 90 miles, about 6 miles north of Shwe-gyeng town; the Rouk-thwa, navigable for a few miles above its mouth; the Mún; the Shwe-gyeng; and many smaller streams. The Bhi-leng rises in the Salwin Hill Tracts, and has a generally southerly course to the Gulf of Martaban. At first it is a rocky mountain torrent, but as soon as it emerges into the plains it deepens rapidly. During the rains, it forms the highway between the Tsit-toung and Maulmain. At spring-tides, a bore rushes up this river, inundating the country around for miles. Its feeders are few and insignificant, but during the rains it communicates on the east with the Dún-tha-mí, and on the west with the Tsit-toung and intervening rivers.

Shwe-gyeng contains five lakes, viz. Htún-daw, Tsa-weng, Mwai-deng, Mí-khyoung-goung, and Nga-thwai-zút. The District has never been carefully surveyed from a geological point of view. The Poung-loung range is composed of gneissose rocks, and the whole of the level and alluvial plains are occupied by a sandy and very homogeneous deposit. Laterite formation prevails at places. The District is said to be rich in minerals. Gold occurs in most of the tributaries of the Shwe-gyeng river (lit. 'gold-washing'), but the quantity found does not repay the labour of washing. Copper, lead, tin, and coal also exist, but are not worked. The chief varieties of timber growing in the District are *teak*, *pyeng-gado*, *pyeng-ma*, and *thit-tsí*.

Population.—The Census of 1872 disclosed a total population of 129,485, viz. 67,943 males and 61,542 females, or 23·26 persons per square mile. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 28,682; females, 25,941; above 12 years—males, 39,261; females, 35,601. Classified ethnologically, there were—Karengs, 43,475; Burmese, 41,562; Talaings, 35,401; Touthús, 4887; Shans, 3189; Muhammadans, 421; Hindus, 291; Chinese, 157; Europeans,

Eurasians, and Americans, 68; 'others,' 34: total, 129,485. By 1878, the number of inhabitants had risen to 139,432. The Karengs are most numerous in the tract east of the Tsit-toung, and belong to two great families, Sgaw and Pwo; many of them have been converted to Christianity by the American Baptist missionaries. The Talaings chiefly inhabit the plains; the Burmese, the country lying north of the Tsit-toung. The Yabaings, who are engaged in the rearing of silk-worms, are found mainly on the eastern slopes of the Pegu Yomas in Bhaw-ní. The Hindus, Muhammadans, and Chinese are all immigrants since the British occupation, as are also many of the Shans, of whom a whole colony came some years ago and settled at Weng-ka-neng, at the junction of the Mút-ta-ma and Shwe-gyeng rivers. The headquarters, and the only town in the District with more than 5000 inhabitants, is SHWE-GYENG, founded in the last century before the Burmese conquest by Alompra; contains the usual public buildings; pop. (1878), 7528. Other towns are,—KYAIK-HTO, an old town at the foot of the Pong-loung range, containing a court-house, market-place, and police station; BHI-LENG, with a population of 2074, founded in 1824, and containing a court-house and the usual public offices; TSIT-FOUNG, on the river of the same name, said to have been built in 588 A.D., contains court-house, etc.; WENG-BA-DAW, noted for its manufacture of pots, and as the chief halting-place for boats proceeding up the Tsit-toung; KYOUK-GYI, at the foot of the Pong-loung Mountains, 34 miles above Shwe-gyeng, with trade in betel-nuts; MÚN, Thú-rai-tha-mí, Pú-zwon-myong, with manufacture of earthen jars; Ginyoung-le-beng, etc. Out of the 512 towns and villages in the District in 1872, no less than 318 contained less than 200 inhabitants, and 126 from 200 to 500; whilst 30 had from 500 to 1000, the remainder more than 1000, but only one above 5000. In 1878, the number of villages had risen to 564. The proportion of the population engaged in agriculture was returned in 1872 as 20·80 per cent., and the male agriculturists of 20 years of age and upwards numbered 20,209.

Agriculture.—Out of 5565 square miles, the total area of the District, only 175 are cultivated, and 3611 are capable of cultivation. The most fertile portions lie along the right bank of the Tsit-toung (Sitoung) river, towards the south. The principal crop is rice, of which 25 varieties are enumerated. Betel-nuts are very largely grown on the hillsides, near running streams, the water being diverted into the palm groves by artificial channels. Cotton is sown in the *toungyas* or hill-clearings, where the hill tribes carry on a nomadic agriculture. Tobacco, vegetables, and oil-seeds are also produced, but the out-turn is small. Rice is the only crop of which the cultivation has steadily increased. In 1877-78, the area under rice was 67,640 acres; under sugar-cane, 1020; vegetables, 1496; betel-nuts, 3738; mixed fruit-trees, 3619; cotton, 136;

and oil-seeds, 128. The area under rice in 1871-72 was 50,773 acres. The chief rice tracts are in the Kaw-lí-ya, Kweng-da-la, Gnyoung-le-beng, Re-hla, Kyouk-gyi, and Gamún-aing circles, the last being the most important. In 1877-78, the price of rice per *maund* of 80 lbs. was 5s. ; of salt, 4s. 3d. A buffalo cost £7, and a plough bullock £6. The average size of a holding is between 3 and 4 acres. As a general rule, the land is held by small proprietors, and is very rarely rented out, and never for a long term of years. Occasionally labourers are hired for rice cultivation, and are always paid in kind.

Manufactures, etc.—The only manufactures in the District are pots, salt, and silk-spinning. The pots are made at Pú-zwon-myoung, a village a few miles above Shwe-gyeng town, where clay is procured on the spot ; at Kweng-da-la, a little lower down ; at Tshiep-gyi in the Kyouk-gyi township ; and at Weng-ba-daw in the Tsit-toung township. At Pú-zwon-myoung, the pots are made for export to Rangoon and Maulmain and intermediate towns, but at the other places for local use only. The largest sized pots are sold for 10s., and the others for 3s. per hundred. Each kiln holds 1000 pots, amongst which are about 200 of the largest kind. The annual produce of one man's labour is estimated at 1000 unburned pots a month, or 7000 in the season, *i.e.* from November to May. The industry has been in existence for about twenty-five years. The pots made at Weng-ba-daw are solely for the salt-boilers, the pot-makers exchanging for salt, delivered at the rate of 365 lbs. for every 100 pots. The yearly out-turn averages 15,000 pots. In the Bhaw-ni and Anaw-baw circles, at the foot and on the lower slopes of the Pegu Yomas, silk-worms are bred by the Yabaings as in PROME DISTRICT. The annual produce of silk is about 9000 lbs., the value of which on the spot is £450. The quantity exported, chiefly to Prome and Shwe-doung, where, on account of the number of skilled weavers, there is the best market for it, is estimated at two-thirds of the total produce, or about 6000 lbs. Of made roads, there are only 16 in the District ; but cart travelling is easy in the plains, and along the left bank of the Tsit-toung river a fairly good road leads to Bhi-leng *viá* Tsit-toung, Kyaik-hto, and Keng-rwa. King Tabeng Shwe-hti, who reigned over the Talaing kingdom from 1540 to 1550, made a road from Pegu to Toung-ngú with rest-houses and gardens at intervals for the use of travellers. The road alone still exists, but is passable in dry weather only. During the rains, communication is carried on almost everywhere by boat ; the total length of waterway is 250 miles. The journey from Maulmain to the Tsit-toung is made *viá* Weng-ba-daw on the west, and the Shwe-lay Canal on the east, which is connected with the Bhi-leng river. To facilitate intercourse with Rangoon, an artificial canal has been cut from Myit-kyo on the Tsit-toung to the Kha-ra-tshú creek, and thence by the Paing-kyún channel into the Pegu river.

Administration.—In 1857-58, the total revenue of Shwe-gyeng District amounted to £29,200. At the end of 1865-66, the whole of the Martaban Subdivision was transferred to Amherst District. In 1877-78, the imperial income of the District was £38,485, and the local funds yielded £4085, making altogether a gross revenue of £42,570, of which the land and capitation taxes and the fisheries form the chief items. For administrative purposes the District is divided into 4 townships, viz. Tsit-toung, Bhi-leng, Kyouk-gyi, and Shwe-gyeng. These comprise 28 revenue circles, each of which is in charge of a *thúgyi*, under the Deputy Commissioner or his subordinates. For some years after British annexation, the country continued in a disturbed state. Whilst Meng-Loung was in rebellion in Rwon-za-leng, a Shan prisoner, formerly a *thúgyi*, effected his escape, and openly proclaimed himself on the side of Meng-Loung. The native officer in charge was murdered in cold blood, but a small detachment was immediately sent against the rebels, who were quickly dispersed. A strong police force was then constituted, which in 1877 consisted of 379 officers and men, giving 1 man to every 15 square miles and every 358 of the population. The total cost was £7653. The number of prisoners confined in the small lock-up at Shwe-gyeng town was 79 in 1877. Besides the ordinary jail service, they are employed in oil and rice-cleaning mills. The State middle-class school in 1876 had an average monthly attendance of 58 pupils, all studying Burmese. The American Baptist missionaries have also boys' and girls' schools for the Karengs. But with these exceptions, the education of the people is entirely in the hands of the Buddhist monks and of a few laymen, who have opened village schools for instruction in reading and writing. According to the Census returns, the percentage of males below 12 years of age who are being educated is 9·50; of females, 0·17: above 20, the percentage of males who may be classed as educated is 26·13; of females, 0·38.

Climate.—Except in the hills, the climate is generally healthy. The heat is excessive from March till May; but a refreshing breeze blows from six to seven P.M. Towards the end of May, the rains are ushered in by violent thunderstorms. The total rainfall registered in 1877 was 156·99 inches. The prevalent disease is fever. In 1877, the number of patients treated at the dispensary was 6914, of whom 343 were in-patients.

Shwe-gyeng.—A township in the centre of Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; lying on both sides of the Tsit-toung river. Bounded north by Tcung-ngú District, east by the Pong-loung range, south by Rangoon, and west by Henzada and Promé Districts. The eastern and western borders are mountainous, and covered with dense forest, but between the lower slopes of the hills

and the Tsit-toung lie fertile tracts of rice land. The other principal rivers are the Kyú and the Da-la-nwon on the east, and the Shwe-gyeng on the west. Most of these are navigable for some distance during the rains. In the west, the township is traversed by numerous fair-weather cart-tracks; the main road from Pegu to Toung-ngú is now being made, and the projected Tsit-toung Valley (State) Railway will pass through Shwe-gyeng. The town of Shwe-gyeng lies within this township, but it is not under the charge of the Extra-Assistant Commissioner. Chief villages—Pú-zwon-myoung, the seat of a large manufacture of earthen pots; and Gnyoung-le-beng. Pop. (1876-77), 49,198; gross revenue, £14,725.

Shwe-gyeng.—Revenue circle in the Kanoung township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated along the right bank of the Irawadi. Thinly cultivated, principally with rice and garden produce. Pop. (1878), 3641; revenue, £684.

Shwe-gyeng.—Chief town and headquarters of Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; situated in lat. $17^{\circ} 55' 0''$ N., and long. $96^{\circ} 57' 30''$ E., on the left bank of the Tsit-toung (Sitoung) river, at the confluence of the Shwe-gyeng river. Pop. (1878), 7528. Extending across the angle formed by the junction of the two rivers is a low line of laterite hills, on which stand the barracks of the small garrison, and a few houses, the remnant of the large cantonment established here after the second Burmese war. Where these abut on the Tsit-toung, north of the town, is the old fort and stockade, which the Burmese evacuated on hearing of the advance of the British column from Martaban to Toung-ngú in 1853. The main portion of the town, which is built regularly, lies in the low land between the Tsit-toung and the Shwe-gyeng, and during the rains is to a great extent flooded. The inhabitants are principally engaged in trade. The town contains the usual offices of a Deputy Commissioner, police station, post and telegraph offices, hospital and dispensary, school, and forest office for the examination of timber floated down the Tsit-toung. Shwe-gyeng is a place of modern growth.

Shwe-gyeng.—River in Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. It rises in the high mountains north-east of Shwe-gyeng, and falls into the Tsit-toung at that town. Above Shwe-gyeng, where it receives the Ma-da-ma from the south, and where its channel suddenly deepens, the river is only navigable by the smallest boats. Its bed is sandy, and in places rocky.

Shwe-hmaw-daw.—A pagoda in the old fortified town of Pegu, Rangoon District, British Burma. It is a pyramidal, solid brick building, rising to a height of 324 feet from an octagonal base, each side of which is 162 feet long. It stands upon two terraces, the lower one being a parallelogram, with its sides 1390 feet long. The pagoda is

surrounded by two tiers of smaller temples; the lower tier contains 75, and the upper 53. Shwe-hmaw-daw, in common with most of the sacred edifices in Burma, is connected with a visit of Gautama, though there can be no doubt that he never came so far as Burma. Tradition asserts that whilst Gautama was staying on the Mat-kú-la Hill, near the sources of the Rwon-za-leng river, he was visited by the two brothers Ma-ha-tha-la and Tsú-la-tha-la of Zoung-dú, a village about 20 miles above the modern town of Pegu. To them Gautama gave two hairs, and, foreseeing that in the 1116th year of his religion the capital of a powerful kingdom would be founded at Han-tha-wad-dí, directed that these sacred relics should be enshrined on a hill close by Ma-ha-tha-la; and Tsú-la-tha-la obtained the aid of the Thagya king of their native town in carrying out Gautama's instructions. The King of Zoung-dú placed certain *náts* or spirits to guard the shrine, made grants of money and land to the pagoda, and dedicated a number of people to its service. The Burmese chronicle is very vague and fragmentary, until it comes to what may be called the historical period. In the year 1116 of Gautama's era (573 A.D.), Tha-ma-la and Wí-ma-la established the kingdom and city of Han-tha-wad-dí, of which Tha-ma-la was the first sovereign. He found the Shwe-hmaw-daw still in existence, and he added to it, and dedicated 25 families to its service; and successive sovereigns kept the pagoda in repair. In 1209 A.D., A-nú-ma-ra-za, the twelfth king of the original dynasty, obtained a holy tooth from the King of Tha-htún to enshrine in the pagoda; and Dham-ma-ze-dí, who came to the throne in 1502, received from the King of Ceylon a present of 100,000 paving-stones, of which 50,000 were used in paving the court or upper terrace. Towards the end of the 18th century, on the occasion of a visit from the King of Burma, the pagoda was thoroughly repaired, and the *hti* or umbrella canopy re-gilt. In June 1852, on the outbreak of the second Burmese war, the pagoda was the scene of some sharp fighting previous to the capture of the town of Pegu by the British.

Shwe-lay.—River in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma; rising in the western slopes of the Ko-dek spur of the Pegu Yomas. It flows in a south-westerly direction, traversing the centre of the plain between the Yomas on the east and the Prome Hills on the west, till it falls into the Myit-ma-kha, north of the village of Keng-than. This river is known by the names of Shwe-lay, Wai-gyí, Wek-pút, and Khyún-khyún-gya, in various portions of its course. During the rains, boats of 500 bushels burden can ascend the river as far as Tha-bye-poung-gyí village. The Shwe-lay drains a rich teak country, and several attempts have been made to facilitate the removal of the felled logs to the Irawadi, but without success. This is owing to the numerous hill torrents that rush into the Shwe-lay during the rains, and bring with

them the forest debris, which during the dry season has rolled into their beds. Thus obstructions are formed; and the foaming water in a few hours bursts the banks, and either continues its course onward in the old channel, or cuts for itself a new one in the soft soil of the plain.

Shwe-lay.—Township in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma; extending along the western slopes of the Pegu Yomas from lat. $18^{\circ} 28'$ to $18^{\circ} 51' N.$, and from long. $95^{\circ} 30'$ to $95^{\circ} 58' E.$ It includes the old townships of Shwe-lay, Rwa-bien, and Myo-doung, and is divided into 14 revenue circles. The whole country, except in the south-west, is hilly and covered with valuable timber. The other chief products are rice, cotton, and mulberry. The principal streams are the North and South Na-weng, and the Teng-gyi, but all are unnavigable within this township. Pop. (1876-77), 21,963; gross revenue, £3348.

Shwe-loung.—Revenue circle in the Tsan-rwe township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma; lying on both banks of the Myit-ma-kha or Hlaing river. Pop. (1876-77), 4266; gross revenue, £1025.

Shwe-loung.—Township in Thún-khwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma; extending northwards from the sea-coast for nearly 100 miles, between the Pya-ma-law and the Irawadi rivers. Area, about 1124 square miles. In the north, the country consists of a plain covered with scrub forest; the lower portion is cut up into islands by numerous inter-communicating creeks, and is dotted with temporary fishing hamlets. Shwe-loung comprises 6 revenue circles. Pop. (1876-77), 34,715; gross revenue, £12,090.

Shwe-loung.—Headquarters of Shwe-loung township, Thún-khwa District, British Burma, and the seat of an Extra-Assistant Commissioner; situated in lat. $16^{\circ} 44' 30'' N.$, and long. $95^{\circ} 23' 30'' E.$, on the Irawadi.

Shwe-myeng-deng.—Pagoda in the Ka-ma township of Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Its name, which means 'conspicuous,' is derived from its position. It is said to date from about 100 A.D.; and subsequently, as it was found that the desires of many who visited this shrine were accomplished, it received its second name of Shwe-tsú-toung-byí, or 'prayers fulfilled.'

Shwe-myeng-deng.—Revenue circle in Bassein township and District, Pegu Division, British Burma; extending along the left bank of the Bassein river. Area, 21 square miles; pop. (1876-77), 3224, chiefly engaged in rice cultivation and fishing; gross revenue, £653.

Shwe-nat-toung.—Pagoda in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma; about 16 miles south of Prome town. It is said to have been erected by Tsan-da-de-wí, the queen of Dwot-ta-boung, the founder of Prome (*circa* 442 B.C.). The building has been since added to and repaired, and being profusely gilt, stands out conspicuously

on a low hill. Behind it are six other pagodas. The annual festival held in March is attended by about 20,000 people.

Shwe-thek-lwot (lit. 'Golden Life Preserved'). — Pagoda in Thayet town, Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. It was erected by Meng-gyl-tswa-tsaw-kai, the second king of the Ava dynasty, about 1373 A.D., as a thankoffering for the preservation of his life when he, as a child, was taken captive in Thayet-myo by the King of Arakan. This building is remarkable as being one of the most southern hollow pagodas; in Upper Burma there are many of this kind, but in the lower country the great majority are of the solid bell-shaped pattern.

Shwe-tshan-daw.—Pagoda near 'Twan-te in Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma; more venerated by the Talaings than even the great Shwe-Dagon of Rangoon. According to its sacred history, it was erected in 577 B.C. by 'Thamien-htaw-byin-ran, the King of Kha-beng, and his queen, as a shrine for three of Gautama's hairs given to him by three pilgrims from Ceylon, on the occasion of their visiting him whilst he was tarrying in the Zeng-gyaik Hills. Subsequently, in 538 B.C., four more holy hairs were deposited in the pagoda by King 'Thamien-htaw-byin-gnya-kan-de and a hermit named Gyl-rí-ren-ga. Near the Shwe-tshan-daw is a grove of *thwot-ta-bat* trees (*Sapota* sp.), seven in number, the only ones in Pegu. The trees were cut down, it is said, by order of the Talaing rulers, when the Burmese conquered their country, because the produce was a royal fruit to be eaten by none but the monarch, and the present trees are shoots of the old stumps.

Shwe-tshan-daw.—Pagoda in Prome town, Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. It is situated on a hill about half a mile from the bank of the Irawadi, and gives its name to a quarter of the town. The building is gilt all over, and is solid. Its height is 180 feet, and it occupies an area of 11,025 square feet. It is surrounded by 83 small gilt niches, called *Ze-dí-yan*, each containing an image of Gautama. The pagoda stands on a paved platform, approached by four flights of steps, two of which, the northern and the western, are covered with elaborately carved roofs supported on massive teak posts. The gilt iron network *hti*, or conical top, is 10 feet in diameter at its base. There are on the platform 12 or 13 bells attached to massive cross-bars, which are struck with deers' antlers by those who come to worship. The pagoda is supposed to have been first erected by two brothers, *I-zí-ka* and *Pa-lí-ka*. Tradition alleges that when Gautama arrived near Prome, and was walking on the island of Zeng-yan, he was accosted by a *naga* or dragon, who begged for some sacred hairs to enshrine in a temple. Gautama refused this request, saying that the glory of building a pagoda to contain his relics must be reserved for two brothers who had gone on a trading expedition to *Thú-wún-na-bhú-mí* or *Tha-htún*. The *naga* then presented to Gautama an emerald box, praying that as he could

not receive the sacred hairs, he might at least contribute the receptacle for them. His gift was accepted, and shortly afterwards I-zi-ka and Pa-li-ka anchored at a place known to this day as Mya-rwa or 'Emerald Village,' and discovered the relics. Having heard of Gautama's prediction, that on the site of the modern Prome the capital of a powerful kingdom would be founded, they proceeded thither, and after considerable difficulty built the pagoda on the hill on which it now stands. Seven days after their departure for their native place, the pagoda sank into the earth. Owing to the prayers of King Dwot-ta-houng, the founder of ancient Prome, the pagoda reappeared, and the king restored it. The Burmese records give no further account of the sacred building, and oral tradition is all we have to rely upon. In 1753, Aloung bhúra coated it with gold; and in 1841, King Tharawadi thoroughly repaired the pagoda, which had been damaged by an earthquake, and put on it a new *hti* studded with jewels. Since then it has been again partially destroyed by another earthquake. It has lately been re-gilt, at an estimated cost of about £2500, raised by public subscription. The annual festival is held on the full moon of Taboung, corresponding to March.

Shwe-tsú-toung-byí.—Pagoda in Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma.—*See* SHWE-MYENG-DENG.

Shwe-tsway-daw.—Pagoda in Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma.—*See* SHWE AN-DAW.

Siáldah.—Village in the Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal; situated just outside the limits of Calcutta. Lat. $22^{\circ} 35' N.$, long. $88^{\circ} 26' E.$ Terminus of the Eastern Bengal and Calcutta and South-Eastern Railways. Seat of a large transit trade.

Siálkot (Sealkote).—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between $31^{\circ} 56'$ and $32^{\circ} 50' N.$ lat., and between $74^{\circ} 16'$ and $75^{\circ} 3' E.$ long. Area, according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1878-79, 1955 square miles; population in 1868, 1,005,004. Siálkot forms the north-western District of the Amritsar (Umritsur) Division. It is bounded on the north-east by the State of Jamu (Jummoo) or Kashmir, on the north-west by the river Chenáb, on the east by Gurdáspur, on the south-east by the Rávi, on the west by Lahore and Gujránwála. The administrative headquarters are at the town of SIALKOT.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Siálkot, occupying the uppermost portion of the Rechna Doáb, stretches in a comparatively unbroken level from the valley of the Rávi on the south-east, to that of the Chenáb on the north-western border. Along the course of either great boundary river, a narrow fringe of alluvial lowland marks the central depression in which they run; while above them rise the high banks which form the limits of their wider beds. Parallel to the Rávi, another stream, the

Degh, which rises in the Jamu (Jummoo) Hills, traverses the south-eastern corner of the District, fringed on either side, like the greater rivers, by a line of alluvial soil. The remainder of the surface consists of a level plain, slightly submontane in character, but lying at a distance of 20 miles from the outermost range of the Himálayan system. Midway between the Rávi and the Chenáb, however, a high dorsal tract stretches from beyond the Jamu border far into the heart of the Doáb. Spreading in its northern portion from the valley of the Degh to the high bank of the Chenáb, it narrows gradually as it runs south-westward, till it finally terminates in an apex about 10 miles beyond Pasrúr, thus forming an irregularly triangular upland wedge. The neighbourhood of the hills has imparted to the general aspect of the District a greenness and fertility rare among the Punjab plains. Two-thirds of its area have already been brought under the plough, and careful tillage might still increase the limit of cultivation. The upper half especially, close to the hills, produces excellent crops; but the southern portion, farther removed from the influence of the rains, shows a marked decrease of fertility. The poorest lands lie in the triangular dorsal ridge, where the naturally arid soil depends entirely for its water supply upon the local rainfall. Elsewhere, irrigation from wells or hill streams has turned the whole country into a waving sheet of tillage. The alluvial lowlands of the Chenáb and the Degh, however, suffer in parts from the injurious saline efflorescence known as *reh*. Between the Degh and the Rávi, too, the wild and unproductive upland grows more and more impregnated with saltpetre as it recedes from the hills, till near the Lahore border it merges into a tangled jungle of brushwood and reeds. Numerous small torrents traverse the north-eastern tract, and several swamps (*jhils*) studded over the face of the country are useful for irrigation. Traces of ancient canals may still be observed, some of which might repay the trouble of restoration. The most remarkable owed its origin to Alí Mardán Khán, the famous engineer of Sháh Jahán, and once brought the waters of the Távi to supply the imperial gardens at Sháhdra. Trees are everywhere rare, and cow-dung forms the ordinary fuel, being used even in the cantonment of Siálkot. A few wolves are the only representatives of the carnivora in the District, while even deer and hares find little cover in so highly cultivated a tract.

History.—Rasálu, Rájá of Siálkot, who lived somewhere about the first century after Christ, forms the great centre of all the local Punjab legends. General Cunningham identifies this possibly mythical hero with the son of Sálivahána, the Vikramáditya who overthrew the Sakas in 78 A.D. Tradition universally points to the town of Siálkot as the famous Rájá's capital, while a thousand stories keep alive his memory among the Hindus of the hills and the submontane tract. After Rasálu's

death, however, his kingdom fell under a curse, and remained desolate for three hundred years. About 643 A.D., the Rájput princes of Jamu overran the District, which they held until its union with the Muhammadan Empire. For a while the Hindu rulers managed to retain their possessions in the plains by the payment of a tribute to the Delhi Emperors; but under the Mughals, Siálkot formed a part of the Province (*subah*) of Lahore, and did not revert to its ancient princes until after the dissolution of the Mughal organization in the days of Ahmad Sháh Duráni. During that stormy period, however, the Rájput Rájás of Jamu once more made good their claim to the fertile and level belt which stretched at the foot of their mountainous principality. In 1740, Ranjít Deo, the ruling Rájá, under a grant from the Duráni Emperor, possessed himself, by force of arms, of a strip of territory stretching from Dinga in the Jetch Doáb to the valley of the Rávi. A powerful Pathán family then occupied the town of Siálkot itself; while the remainder of the District was harried by bands of Síkhs, under the command of the Bhangi chieftains and of Charrat Sinh, grandfather of Ranjít Sinh, the Mahárájá of the Punjab. In 1774, Brij Ráj Deo, son of the Jamu Rájá, rebelled against his father, and called in the aid of Charrat Sinh. The Sikh chieftain gladly embraced the opportunity; but Ranjít Deo met him on the banks of the river Basantar, as he marched on Jamu, and utterly defeated the Sikh forces, while Charrat Sinh himself lost his life in the engagement. The Bhangi chieftains, who had just wrested Siálkot town from its Pathán masters, and dreaded the rising power of their co-religionist, gave their aid to the Rájá in this campaign. Mahá Sinh, son and successor of the defeated chief, then turned southward, and began to establish his authority in the lower part of the Doáb. Meanwhile, Ranjít Deo died in 1783, and was succeeded by his rebellious son, Brij Ráj Deo, a man of debauched habits, quite unfit to hold his own against the active and vigorous Síkhs. Mahá Sinh seized upon the opportunity, and advanced upon Jamu in 1784 with a considerable force. The new Rájá fled to the hills on his approach, and Mahá Sinh sacked the defenceless capital without striking a blow. He did not attempt, however, to secure his conquest, but retired at once to his headquarters at Gujránwála. The Bhangi chiefs of Siálkot and the Kanhyas from the Bári Doáb thereupon completed the overthrow of the Jamu prince, and wrested from him, by the year 1786, all Ranjít Deo's acquisitions in the plains. Brij Ráj Deo himself finally fell in battle, making a last effort to resist the Sikh encroachments. The whole District thus passed into the hands of the rising sect, and the greater part became the appanage of retainers of the Bhangi confederacy or *misl*. The Kanhya chiefs took the rest, except a few villages which fell to Mahá Sinh. But Ranjít Sinh, son of the last-named prince, soon disturbed this amicable

arrangement of territory in the Rechna Doáb. In 1790, the future Maharájá appropriated part of the Bhangi domains; and in 1807, he made himself master of Pasrúr. In the same year, the Sardárs of Siálkot ventured to question his title to these new acquisitions; whereupon Ranjít Singh promptly attacked and defeated them, adding Siálkot to his growing dominions. By the end of 1810, the whole District had been swallowed up; while, a few years later, the Maharájá made himself supreme from the Sutlej (Satlaj) to the Suláimán Mountains. British rule was extended to Siálkot in 1849, after the second Sikh war. On the first distribution of the Province into Divisions and Districts, the whole upper portion of the Rechna Doáb was formed into a single charge, having its headquarters at Wazirábád. In 1850, however, this extensive District underwent subdivision, being formed into the two new Districts of Gujránwála and Siálkot, while portions were made over to Gurdáspur and Lahore. Subsequent transfers of territory have brought the boundaries to their present shape. During the Mutiny of 1857, Siálkot was the scene of an outbreak on the part of the native troops stationed in the cantonments. The mutineers laid siege for a time to the European residents in the fort, and remained masters of the whole District. The treasury was plundered, and all the records destroyed.

Population.—The area at present included in Siálkot District had a population of 805,837 at the Census of 1855. By 1868, the number had increased by 199,167 persons, or 24·71 per cent. The latter enumeration extended over an area of 1969 square miles, and disclosed a total population of 1,005,004 persons, distributed among 2317 villages or townships, and inhabiting 200,570 houses. From these data the following averages may be deduced:—Persons per square mile, 510; villages or townships per square mile, 1·17; houses per square mile, 101; persons per village, 433; persons per house, 5·01. (The area of the District, according to the latest Parliamentary Return, that of 1879, is 1955 square miles.) Classified according to sex, there were—males, 546,159; females, 458,845: proportion of males, 54·35 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, below 12 years—males, 201,014; females, 172,919; total children, 373,933, or 37·20 per cent. of the whole population: above 12 years—males, 345,145; females, 285,926; total, 631,071, or 62·80 per cent. of the whole population. As regards religious distinctions, Hindus numbered 218,771, or 21·76 per cent.; Muhammadans, 601,959, or 59·90 per cent.; Sikhs 50,279, or 5 per cent.; and ‘others,’ 133,995, or 13·33 per cent. A revised statement, compiled in 1873, gives the following analysis of the occupations of the people:—Agricultural, 419,304 persons; non-agricultural, 585,700 persons. As regards ethnical classification, the principal Hindu and Sikh tribes comprise 35,928 Bráhmans, 11,734

Rájputs, 19,274 Kshattriyas, 14,264 Aroras, and 86,362 Játs, besides a few Banias, Gujars, and Ahirs. The Muhammadans include 13,570 Sayyids, 2831 Mughals, 3079 Patháns, 45,465 Rájputs, 137,065 Játs, 10,263 Gujars, and a small sprinkling of 'others.' The total number of Játs—Hindus and Muhammadans together—amounts to 223,427 persons, and they form the finest agricultural class in the District. The Awáns, though not shown separately in the Census return, are a tribe of great social and political importance, being the leading Muhammadan race of the submontane tract. The District contained 5 towns in 1868 with a population exceeding 5000, namely—SIALKOT (town and cantonments), 25,337; PASRUR, 8527; ZAFFARWAL, 5641; KILA SOBHA SINH, 5153; and CHAWINDA, 5082. The total urban population accordingly amounted to 49,740 persons, or 4·94 per cent. of the District population.

Agriculture.—Out of a total area of 1,251,324 acres in 1868, as much as 825,874 acres were under cultivation. The area under each crop in 1872-73 was as follows:—*Rabi* or spring harvest—wheat, 404,775 acres; barley, 65,273; gram, 6690; lentils, 19,929; tobacco, 6473; oil-seeds, 13,225; vegetables, 10,908: *Kharif* or autumn harvest—rice, 85,463; Indian corn, 32,863; millets, 52,739; pulses, 22,377; oil-seeds, 7762; sugar-cane, 45,933; cotton, 47,237; vegetables, 8145. Wheat forms the great staple of the *rabi*, and rice and millets of the *kharif*. The best sugar-cane grows on the land watered by the Degh, and in the lowlands of the Chenáb north of Siálkot town. Millets, on the other hand, occupy the dry uplands in the centre of the District. Irrigation is widely practised, as much as 420,379 acres (or more than half the total cultivated area) being artificially supplied with water, according to the latest returns. In the tract known as Bajwant, nearly every field derives an abundant supply from a network of cuts and water-courses in connection with the Chenáb and its branches. Elsewhere, irrigation is carried on from wells, or by means of Persian wheels working upon the banks of streams. The value of manure is universally appreciated, and rotation of crops is carried out to a considerable extent. The village tenures belong as a rule to the intermediate type known as *pattidári*. Rents are paid almost equally in kind and in money. Day-labourers are seldom employed upon agricultural work except at harvest-time, when they receive their wages in grain. Skilled labourers in towns received in 1872-73 from 6d. to 9d. per diem; unskilled, from 3d. to 4½d. per diem. Prices of food grains ruled as follows on the 1st of January 1873:—Wheat, 23 *seers* per rupee, or 4s. 10d. per cwt.; barley, 39 *seers* per rupee, or 2s. 11d. per cwt.; gram, 20 *seers* per rupee, or 5s. 7d. per cwt.; Indian corn and *joár*, 28 *seers* per rupee, or 4s. per cwt.; rice, 16 *seers* per rupee, or 7s. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The local commerce centres on the

town of Sialkot, which gathers into its *bázárs* more than half the raw produce of the District. The large markets of Lahore and Amritsar (Umritsur) afford a ready outlet for its surplus stocks, while the great rivers on either side form natural channels of communication with the lower parts of the Punjab. Grain of all kinds is exported to Múltán, Lahore, and Amritsar; sugar and molasses to Pesháwar, Kábul, and Karáchi (Kurrachee). Arms are despatched inland to Jamu; shawl-edging, manufactured by Kashmíri settlers at Sialkot and Kilá Sobha Sinh, to Amritsar; and country cloth to the hill tracts. The return trade includes—grain from Batála and the Bári Doáb uplands; salt from Pind Dádan Khán; rice, tobacco, and potatoes from Kángra and Núrpur; *ghí* from Jalálpur and the hills; timber from Kashmír (Cashmere); hemp from the submontane tracts of Jamu; and indigo from Múltán. The indigenous manufactures comprise silk, saddlery, shawl-edging, coarse chintzes, pottery, brass vessels, country cloth, cutlery, and paper. In 1869, an undertaking was started at Sialkot under the name of the Belfast Flax Company, to encourage the growth of flax for exportation to England; but though an excellent fibre was raised in the District, the difficulty of procuring good seed, and the apathy of the peasantry (who would not adopt the new methods necessary to the production of first-class flax), caused the enterprise to prove a failure after some years' trial. The total length of roads in 1872-73 amounted to 9 miles metalled and 1064 miles unmetalled. The District contains three printing presses,—one at the jail, which prints in English, Urdu, Persian, and Hindi; and two native presses in Sialkot town, which print in the vernacular.

Administration.—The District staff usually comprises a Deputy Commissioner, 3 Assistant Commissioners, and 1 Extra - Assistant Commissioner, besides the ordinary medical, fiscal, and constabulary officials. The total imperial revenue raised in the District in 1872-73 amounted to £125,768; of which sum £108,598, or more than five-sixths, was derived from the land tax. The only other item of any importance was that of stamps. Besides these imperial receipts, a small provincial and local revenue was also raised. The incidence of the land revenue is high, being as much as 1s. 11½d. per acre in Sialkot, against 8d. per acre, the average of the Province. The total number of civil and revenue judges in 1872-73 was 18; and the total number of magistrates, 17. The regular police force in the same year numbered 385 officers and men, while the municipalities maintained a separate constabulary of 185 men. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property amounted to 570 policemen, being 1 constable to every 3·45 square miles of the area and to every 1761 of the population. They are further supplemented by a body of rural watchmen (*chaukidárs*). The total number of persons brought to

trial for all offences, great or small, committed in the District in 1871 was 6275. The District jail at Siálkot contained in 1872 a total of 1152 prisoners, with a daily average of 460. Education, which was at a very low ebb during the Sikh period, has made a considerable start under British rule. In 1872-73, the District contained 427 schools of all grades (besides the normal school at Siálkot), with a roll of 8491 pupils. The total expenditure on education during that year amounted to £3275. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is subdivided into 4 *tuhsils* and 9 *pargands*. The ten municipal towns of SIALKOT, JANKI, DASKA, ZAFFARWAL, SANKHATRA, CHAWINDA, KILA SOBHA SINII, PASRUR, NAROWAI, and MITRANWALI, had an aggregate revenue in 1875-76 of £3909, or 1s. 0½d. per head of the population (77,239) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Siálkot may be considered as free from excessive heat, judged by the common standard of the Punjab. Even in the hottest weather, a storm in the hills produces a pleasing change; while in May and September, cool breezes from the Himálayas moderate the prevailing heat. The mean monthly temperature in 1871 was 87·62° F. in May; 84·76° F. in July; and 53·43° F. in December. The maximum point reached during the year was 114° F., and the minimum 32° F. The annual rainfall for the seven years ending 1872 was as follows:—In inches, 32·4, 49·4, 45·3, 41·1, 32·5, 33·9, and 24·4 respectively. It will therefore be seen that the fluctuations are far less wide, and the supply far less precarious, than in most other Districts of the Punjab plains. Siálkot bears a good reputation as a healthy tract. Malarial fever, small-pox, dysentery, and pneumonia form the prevalent diseases. The itch also proves troublesome amongst the agricultural classes. The total number of deaths from all causes reported in 1872 was 31,079, or 31 per thousand. Of these no less than 18,556, or 18·66 per thousand, were assigned to fevers. The District contains 5 Government charitable dispensaries, which afforded relief in 1872 to 21,100 persons, of whom 488 were in-patients. The leper asylum at Pathánwáli consists of three barracks, capable of accommodating about 100 lepers. Cattle-disease occurs in the form of a murrain called *waba*, which carries off a large number of beasts every year.

Siálkot.—*Tahsil* of Siálkot District, Punjab; consisting of a fertile agricultural country, lying around the headquarters station. Area, 628 square miles; pop. (1868), 380,031; number of villages, 809.

Siálkot.—Municipal town, military cantonment, and administrative headquarters of Siálkot District, Punjab. Population in 1868 (including the cantonment), 25,337, consisting of 6148 Hindus, 16,580 Muhammadans, 1295 Sikhs, 13 Christians, and 1301 'others.' Situated in lat. 32° 31' N., and long. 74° 36' E., on the northern bank of the Aik torrent, upon the edge of the high triangular ridge which

extends squthward from the Jamu Hills. Distant from Lahore 72 miles north-east. Founded, according to tradition, by Rájá Sál or Shál, mentioned in the *Mahábhárata* as an uncle of the Pándava princes. Restored by Sálwan or Sálivahána, otherwise called Vikramáditya, father of the great Punjab hero, Rasálu. Headquarters of a fiscal District under the Mughals. Remains of an ancient fort crown a low circular eminence in the centre of the town, and are known as the stronghold of Rájá Sálwan. Other similar mounds stand among the outskirts. The modern town possesses handsome and well-built streets. Historical interest attaches to the fort in consequence of its gallant defence during the Mutiny of 1857; a cemetery at its foot contains the graves of the victims. A temple erected by Rájá Tej Sinh has a conspicuous spire, visible from all parts of the town. The shrine of the first *gúru*, Bába Nának (*see* AMRITSAR DISTRICT), is the scene of a famous annual fair, largely attended by Sikhs from all parts of the District. The Darbár Báoli Sáhí, a covered well, erected by a Rájput disciple of Bába Nának, also ranks high in religious consideration among the Sikhs. Muhammadan shrine of Imám Alí-ul-hak, a handsome building of ancient construction. Three public gardens; sessions-house, court-house, treasury; *tahsili*, police office, jail; two *sardís*, school-house of Scotch Presbyterian Mission, post office, Government charitable dispensary. The cantonment lies about three-quarters of a mile north of the town, and contains the station church, a Roman Catholic convent school, a staging rest-house, and a public garden. Local trade centre of rising importance, with several wealthy merchants and bankers, the most prominent of whom belong to the Jain tribe of Bhálras. Large paper manufacture, carried on at 165 mills, and giving employment to 1244 men, with a yearly out-turn valued at £6720. Considerable mauufacture of cotton cloth. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £2456, or rs. 5½d. per head of population (33,035) within municipal limits.

Síaltek.—Village in Cáchár District, Assam; situated on the Barák or Surmá river, near the boundary of Sylhet, where toll is levied on the timber, bamboos, etc. floated down stream. Up to 1876, the river tolls at Síaltek *ghát* were farmed out to a contractor, who paid rent at the rate of £1500 a year. Since that date the toll station has been taken under direct Government management. In 1876-77, the receipts fell to £854.

Síána.—Town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* SIYANA.

Siársol.—Coal-mine in Bardwán District, Bengal, being a part of the RANIGANJ coal-field. The mineral is a variety of the non-coking bituminous coal, with a large portion of volatile matter and ash. The brighter portions consist of very pure coal, a sample of which gave

the following results:—Volatile, 40 per cent. ; fixed carbon, 57·5 per cent. ; ash, 2·5 per cent. The composition varies, however, considerably, the percentage of fixed carbon in one sample being 51·1 ; of volatile matter, 38·5 ; and of ash, 10·4 ; while selected rich layers gave the following analysis:—Fixed carbon, 57·25 per cent. ; volatile matter, 41 per cent. ; and ash, only 1·75 per cent.

Sibi.—Religious fair in Túngkúr District, Mysore.—*See* SHIBI.

Síbpur.—Suburb of Howrah town, Húgli District, Bengal ; situated in lat. 22° 34' N., and long. 88° 16' E., opposite Fort William. Has grown since the beginning of this century from a small village into a flourishing town ; inhabited chiefly by Government clerks. On the river-side are the Albion works, consisting of a flour-mill and a distillery, also a dockyard and a saw-mill. To the south of Síbpur are the Royal Botanical Gardens and Bishop's College. Permanent mart for District produce ; bricks made and exported to Calcutta.

Síbságar (*Sebsaugor*).—A British District in the upper valley of the Province of Assam, lying between 26° 19' and 27° 16' N. lat., and between 93° 21' and 95° 25' E. long. Area (according to the recent Revenue Survey, which closed operations in 1875), 2855 square miles ; population (as ascertained by the Census of 1872), 296,589. Bounded on the north and west by Lakhimpur District, the Brahmaputra marking the boundary for the greater part of the distance ; on the south by independent Nágá territory ; and on the west by the Nágá Hills District. The administrative headquarters are at SIBSAGAR TOWN, situated about 11 miles inland from the south bank of the Brahmaputra.

Physical Aspects.—The District presents the appearance of a level plain, much overgrown with grass and jungle, and intersected by numerous tributaries of the Brahmaputra. Along the bank of the great river, the land lies very low, and is exposed to annual inundation ; in the interior, the country rises towards the Nágá Hills in the background, and the cane-brakes and grassy swamps of the valley give place to jungles of heavy timber. The District is divided by the little stream of the Disái into two tracts, which differ in soil and general appearance. East of the Disái, the surface is very flat, and the soil consists of a heavy loam of a whitish colour, which is well adapted for rice cultivation. The general level is only broken by the long lines of embankments which were raised by the Ahom kings, to serve both as roadways and as a protection against floods. West of the Disái, though the surface soil is of the same character, the general aspect is diversified by the protrusion of the subsoil. The latter is a stiff clay, abounding in iron nodules, and furrowed by frequent ravines and water-courses, which divide the cultivable fields into innumerable small sunken patches, locally known as *holdás*. It is in this western tract,

forming the Subdivision of Jorhát, that European enterprise has terraced the slopes of the forest-clad hills with trim tea-gardens.

There are no mountains within the limits of the District. The chief river is the Brahmaputra, forming the continuous northern boundary, which is navigable all the year through by steamers and large native boats. Its navigable tributaries comprise the Dhaneswari, Burí Dihing, Disang, and Dikhu, which all flow in a northerly direction from the Nágá Hills. The most signal example of alluvion in the whole Province is afforded by the Majuli *char*, included within the District of Sibságar. This island is said to have been formed by the silt brought down by the Subansiri river from the Himálayas, and deposited in the wide channel of the Brahmaputra. It contains an area of about 400 square miles, almost entirely overgrown with grass and jungle. The fisheries of the District, which are Government property, yield an annual revenue of about £1120 a year. Wild beasts of all kinds abound, including elephants, rhinoceros, tigers, bears, buffaloes, and deer. In 1870-71, £180 was paid to Government for the privilege of capturing wild elephants. The jungle products consist of caoutchouc, lac, bees-wax, and various fibres and dyes. The mineral wealth of the District is said to comprise coal, iron, petroleum, and salt, but none of these have been profitably worked. A little gold dust is washed in several of the hill streams. Some hot springs are situated near the banks of the Dhaneswari.

History.—Sibságar District first rose into prominence as the headquarters of the Aham dynasty, which ruled Assam for about 400 years before the British annexation. Prior to the advent of the Ahams, the dominant race was the Chutiás, who were of a kindred origin to the Ahams, and only subjugated by them after a fierce contest. At the present day, these two tribes form nearly one-half of the total population. The Ahams, a people of Shan origin, are said to have first made their appearance in Upper Assam in the 14th century, after the downfall of the legendary Hindu kingdom of Kámrúp. They gradually spread down the valley of the Brahmaputra, until in the 17th century they were able to hold their own at Gauhátí against repeated invasions of the Mughals. It does not appear that they brought any religion with them from their native hills; but in course of years they fell under the influence of Hinduism, and at the same time lost the virtues of military and civil administration, by means of which they had founded their empire. At last, in order to protect themselves against internal dissensions, they were compelled to call in the assistance of the Burmese, who tyrannized over the country with great severity, until they were in their turn driven out by the British in 1823. The original capital of the Ahams was at GARHGAON in this District, on the Dikhu river, a short distance south-east of Sibságar town, where numerous ruins are still to

be seen. The city and its suburbs appear to have extended over many square miles of country; and the royal palace itself was surrounded by a brick wall, about 2 miles in circumference. It has been noticed that one of the many gateways is built of large blocks of stone bearing marks of iron crampings, which show traces that they once belonged to a far more ancient edifice—thus attesting the primitive Hindu traditions of Kámrúp as told in the *Mahábhárata*. The whole is now overgrown with dense jungle; and the natural course of decay has been hastened by the hand of man, for the old bricks are found serviceable on the tea-gardens of the present day. The second Aham capital was at RANGPUR, immediately to the south of Sibságar town, which is said to have been founded about 1790 by Rájá Rudra Sinh, the first Aham prince who submitted himself to the Bráhmans. The ruins of his palace, and of a temple which he built to Jaiságar, still exist amid the deep jungle. To the eldest son of this monarch is assigned the excavation of the great tank, 114 acres in area, around which has been built the civil station of Sibságar. Rangpur continued as the royal residence until the year 1784, when the Aham kingdom began to be dismembered. The Rájá, named Gaurináth, fled before his rebellious subjects, who had advanced against him from the east. He first stopped at Jorhát on the Disái river, in the centre of Sibságar District, but was ultimately compelled to retire to Gauháti. With British assistance, he was enabled to return to Jorhát, where he died in 1793. Apart from the ruins of successive capitals, the Ahams have left permanent traces of their power in the great lines of embankment running through the country, which are locally known as *ális*. These were constructed by a system of forced labour, and served both as roads and as protections against river floods. The entire method of Aham administration was based upon personal servitude. The country was parcelled out into executive Districts, each of which was under the control of a taskmaster; no money revenue was demanded, but compulsory service was exacted from every individual among the subject races as his contribution to the needs of the State. The recollection of this organized slavery still lives in the minds of the people. At the present day, it is found almost impossible to obtain labourers to work on the roads, or other Government undertakings. The peasantry are willing to take employment on the tea-gardens, when not occupied on their own little plots of rice; but to work for Government is held to involve indelible disgrace. Hence it is that the great works of the Aham period have been suffered to fall into disrepair, and the incursions of the rivers have thrown much good land out of cultivation.

When the British expelled the Burmese and took possession of Assam in 1823, they were indisposed to undertake the responsibilities

of administration beyond what seemed absolutely necessary. A military outpost was stationed at Sadiyá, at the extreme head of the Brahmaputra valley, but the civil government by European officials was not extended farther east than the confines of Nowgong. The tract that now forms Sibságar District, together with the southern portion of Lakhimpur, was handed over to a native ruler, Rájá Purandhar Sinh, who was guaranteed the secure exercise of his authority on condition of paying a tribute of £5000 a year. This unsatisfactory arrangement produced the results which might have been anticipated. The Rájá, protected by the British name from the consequences of his misrule, indulged himself in the most wanton oppressions upon his helpless subjects, and rendered their condition even more miserable than it had been under the Burmese invaders. It is on record that the country became so depopulated, that it was unable to furnish the British tribute. Under these circumstances it was found necessary in 1838 to dispossess Purandhar Sinh, and to place Sibságar under the direct management of an English officer. The early reports of those days are confined to complaints of the extreme misery to which the country was reduced. The tea industry, however, has now brought back prosperity; and at the present time the Sibságar peasants rank among the most contented and wealthy in Assam.

People.—Mr. Robinson, in his *Descriptive Account of Assam* (1840), roughly estimated the population of Sibságar District, which then included great part of Lakhimpur, at 200,000 souls. Another estimate in 1853 gave a total of 211,477. The first regular Census was taken in 1871; and the enumeration, instead of being taken in a single night as in Bengal, was prolonged over the two months of November and December. The results disclosed a total of 296,589 persons, residing in 203 *mauzds* or aggregates of villages, and in 55,604 houses. The area of the District, according to the Survey of 1875, amounts to 2855 square miles, which yields the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 104; *mauzds* per square mile, 0·08; houses per square mile, 19. The average number of persons per *mauzd* is 1461; of persons per house, 5·3. Classified according to sex, there are 154,940 males and 141,649 females; proportion of males, 52·24 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under 12 years—55,222 boys and 51,404 girls; total children, 106,626, or 36 per cent. of the population. The ethnical division of the people shows—74 Europeans and 6 Eurasians; 227 Bhutiás, 7 Chinese, and 476 Nepális; 29,352 aborigines; 175,884 semi-Hinduized aborigines; 76,933 Hindus subdivided according to caste; 928 persons of Hindu origin not recognising caste; 12,619 Muhammadans; 83 Burmese. The chief feature in this classification is the large proportion of semi-Hinduized

aborigines, as compared with the rest of Assam. On the one hand, the hill tribes of the northern Himálayas and of the eastern Burmese Mountains are poorly represented ; while, on the other, the castes of Bengali Hindus have not penetrated so far east. The great bulk of the population are pure Assamese, more or less converted to Hinduism. The once dominant race of Ahams, numbering 94,304 souls, still supplies one-third of the total inhabitants. Though they have now sunk to the level of common cultivators, they retain many of their ancient habits and institutions. Some of them eat beef and pork, and also bury instead of burning their dead. Next in number come the Chutiás (31,342), who have already been referred to as of the same original stock as the Ahams, and their predecessors in the government of the Upper Valley of the Brahmaputra. The Kochs (23,965) are members of a tribe whose present headquarters are in the Bengal State of Kuch Behar, but who ruled at one time over the greater part of Assam, before the arrival of the Ahams. The Doms (16,277) are a curious race, who lay claim in Assam to high-caste purity, but reject the ministrations of Bráhmans. All these are classed in the Census Report with the semi-Hinduized aborigines. The aborigines proper include—the Cácharis (15,320), who are largely employed on tea-gardens ; 6862 Miris from North Lakhimpur ; and a number of minor tribes, of whom many, such as the Kols, Uráons, and Santáls, are imported labourers from Chutiá Nágpur. Among the Hindus, the Bráhmans number 12,821, being especially numerous for an Assam District ; the Rájputs, 332 ; the Káyasths, 2117 ; the Jain traders, from the north-west of India, furnish an aggregate of about 600. The most numerous caste is the Kalitás (26,973), who formed the priesthood for the Kochs, Doms, and Ahams before the introduction of Bráhmanism. The Kalitás now rank as pure Súdras, on a level with the Káyasths, and are generally engaged in agriculture or Government service. Classified according to religion, the population consists of—Hindus (as loosely grouped together for religious purposes), 282,969, or 95·4 per cent. ; Musalmáns, 12,619, or 4·3 per cent. ; the remainder is made up of 283 Christians (including 203 native converts), 153 Buddhists, and 565 ‘others.’ The Hindus are subdivided into the four following sects :—Tantrik, Bhágvatiyá, Mahápurúshiyá, and Thákuriá. There are five principal *sástrás* or religious institutions of a monastic character, each presided over by its own high priest or *gosáin*, and 83 minor *sástrás*. The Bráhma Samáj is represented by a few followers, who are all immigrants from Bengal. According to the Census Report, the Vaishnavs number 94 ; the Mataks, who are converts to Vishnuvism from among the aborigines of Lakhimpur, 84 ; the Gosáins, or religious teachers of the various sects, 407 ; the Nánaksháhís, or followers of the founder of the Sikh religion, 140. The Muhammadans of Sibságar

are said to be descended partly from artisans introduced by an early Ahom Rájá, and partly from soldiers left by the invading Mughal armies. Many of them have joined the Faráizi or reformed sect, but they are not actively fanatical, and have ceased to make proselytes. The native Christians are under the care of a branch of the American Baptist Mission, which has been established in Síbságár since 1840.

The population of the District is entirely rural, being employed either on rice cultivation or the tea-gardens. The only place with a population of more than 5000 is SIBSAGAR TOWN, which contains (1872) 5278 inhabitants. It is situated about 11 miles inland from the south bank of the Brahmaputra, and, besides the houses of the civil officials, possesses a straggling *bázár*, in which a brisk business is conducted during the cold season with the neighbouring hill tribes. JORHAT, on the Disái river in the centre of the District (pop. 1310), is the home of several Márwári and Muhammadan traders, who supply the wants of the labourers on the tea-gardens. GOLAGHAT, on the Dhaneswari (pop. 1615), is the only seat of river traffic in the District, being accessible to steamers from May to November. The ruins of Garhgáon and Rangpur have been already referred to.

Agriculture, etc.—The staple crop throughout the District is rice, which furnishes two great harvests in the year. The *sáli*, corresponding to the *áman* of Bengal, is sown on low lands about June, transplanted in the following month, and reaped in November. Its finer varieties are sometimes comprised under the generic term of *láhi*. The *dhu* or *dus* is sown on high lands about March, and reaped in July, leaving the field ready for a cold-weather crop of pulses or oil-seeds. A third crop of rice, called *báo*, is grown on the borders of marshes or the banks of rivers, being sown about April, and reaped in November. This is a long-stemmed variety, and can keep pace in its growth with the rise of flood water. The other crops include Indian corn, several varieties of pulses, mustard grown as an oil-seed, sugar-cane, *pán* or betel-leaf, and cotton and indigo raised only by the hill tribe of Mirís. The *súm* tree is an important object of attention in the neighbourhood of villages, for the sake of the silk-worm that feeds on its leaves. According to the Revenue Survey of 1875, only 298,836 acres, or about one-sixth of the total area of the District, are under cultivation, though the greater part of the remainder is capable of tillage. Manure, in the form of cow-dung, is only used for sugar-cane and other special crops. Irrigation is adopted in the case of *sáli* rice, when water can be easily obtained from natural water-courses. It is not customary to allow land to lie fallow. Spare land abounds on all sides, and the present tenures are favourable to the cultivator. As throughout the rest of Assam, the entire soil is the property of the State, and annual leases are granted direct to the cultivators. Under native

rule, the main source of revenue was a sort of capitation tax, raised at the rate of 4s. on each plough, and 2s. on each hoe. The first land settlement, commenced in 1839, assessed the rate of revenue at 1s. 6d. an acre on *rupit* or moist lands, on which *sáli* rice is grown, and 9d. an acre on all other lands. In 1844, these rates were raised respectively to 1s. 10d. and 1s. 4d. At the present time, *bastú* or homestead land pays 6s. an acre; *rupit*, 3s. 9d. an acre; and *faringhátí*, on which *das* rice and other crops are grown, 3s. an acre. The average out-turn of unhusked paddy from an acre of rice land is estimated to amount to about 33 cwt., worth about £4, 10s.

The rate of wages for ordinary unskilled labour is said to have doubled within the past fifteen years, owing to the extension of tea cultivation; and the demand for skilled labour has risen in a still greater proportion. Indeed, labour of all kinds requires to be imported from Bengal. In 1872, a common day-labourer was procurable with difficulty at 6d. a day. Male coolies on the tea-gardens were engaged for 10s. a month, and women for 8s.; but these rates could be almost doubled by taking task-work. A second-rate blacksmith or carpenter received £3 or £4 a month, and a bricklayer £1, 12s. The prices of food grains have risen in like proportion. The following are the rates for 1872, which were somewhat above the average of recent years:—Common rice, 5s. 5d. per cwt.; pulses, from 6s. 10d. to 12s. 3d. per cwt.; oil, £2, 14s. 8d. per cwt.; salt, 16s. 4d. per cwt. In 1866, the year of the Orissa famine, the price of common rice rose to 14s. per cwt.

Sibsagar District is not especially exposed to either of the calamities of flood or drought. The valley of the Brahmaputra is subject to annual inundation, owing to the old embankments having been allowed to fall into a bad state of repair; but it is not known that the general harvest of the District has ever been affected thereby. Partial drought is sometimes caused by deficiency of local rainfall. The season of 1857 is still remembered by the people as having resulted in a scarcity from this cause, which raised the price of common unhusked paddy to 7s. 6d. per cwt. The people mainly depend for their food supply on the *sáli* rice crop; and if this were to fail, it would be difficult to supply its place either from the other crops or by importation.

Manufactures, etc.—The local industries are limited to the weaving of silk and cotton cloth, the making of domestic utensils from brass and bell metal, and a coarse description of pottery. The silk cloth is woven of various degrees of fineness, and is divided into three classes:—*mujánkuri*, the finest of all, from the cocoons of a worm fed on the *adákurí* tree; *mugá*, the best known, from a worm fed on the *súm* tree; and *eridá*, which is very coarse, from a worm fed on the castor-oil plant. The finest raw silk has been sold for as much as £1, 16s. per

pound; but the manufacture has greatly fallen off in recent years, owing to the competition of cotton piece-goods imported from Europe. The braziers are almost entirely supported by a system of advances made by Márwári capitalists, at the rate of 6d. per pound for brass, and 1s. per pound for bell metal.

The trade of the District, also, is mainly confined to the Márwáris. The principal seats of commerce are Jorhát, Golaghát, and Sibságar town. The two latter places are the resort of large numbers of Nágás during the 'cold season, who bring down cotton and vegetables to barter for salt, fish, poultry, and cattle. Cotton is commonly exchanged for half its weight of salt. There are no large annual fairs, similar to those held in Lower Assam. The principal exports from the District are tea, silk, mustard seed, cotton, and jungle products; the imports are salt, oil, opium, piece-goods, and miscellaneous hardware.

The cultivation and manufacture of tea is largely carried on by European capital and under European supervision; and in this industry Sibságar ranks as the first District in Assam Proper, being only surpassed in the whole of India by Cáchár. The Assam Tea Company, which commenced its operations in Lakhimpur, had opened fifteen factories in Sibságar by 1852, with 2500 acres under cultivation, and an out-turn of 267,000 pounds. Soon after that date, many private gardens were taken up by Europeans and natives; and in 1869, after the recovery from the panic caused by excessive speculation, there were 110 gardens in cultivation, managed by 53 European and 233 native assistants, and employing a monthly average of 13,399 imported and 790 local labourers. The statistics for 1874 show 22,573 acres under cultivation, out of a total of 108,050 acres taken up, mostly in fee-simple; and an out-turn of 4,976,419 lbs. of tea, being an increase of 554,898 lbs. on the previous year.

The chief means of communication in the District are afforded by the Brahmaputra and Dhaneswarí rivers, both navigable by steamers. The roads all follow the lines of the *álís* or old embankments constructed by forced labour under the Aham kings. The Trunk Road or Seoní *áli*, maintained by the Public Works Department, runs the entire length of the District for a course of 133 miles. The aggregate length of the District roads in 1872 was returned at 404 miles, of which 305 miles were classed as important. Wheeled conveyances are rarely used, owing to the want of good bridges.

Administration.—In 1870-71, the total revenue of Sibságar District amounted to £93,853, of which the land tax contributed £43,976, or 47 per cent., and *ábkári* or excise £42,090, or 46 per cent.; the expenditure was £35,194, or about two-fifths of the revenue, and the item of 'cost and conveyance of opium' absorbed £13,842, which is properly a debit against the revenue from excise. As through-

out the rest of Assam, owing to the circumstance that an assessment is made annually with the cultivators, the land tax is a very elastic source of revenue, having increased from £7013 in 1840 to £11,120 in 1850, and to £48,758 in 1875. In the last-mentioned year, there were 3 covenanted European officers stationed in the District, and 6 magisterial and 11 civil and revenue courts open. For police purposes, the District is divided into 4 *thánds* or police circles. In 1872, the regular police force consisted of 283 officers and men, maintained at a cost of £4783; showing 1 policeman to every 8·42 square miles of area, or to every 1048 of the population, and an average cost of £1, 19s. 7d. per square mile and 4d. per head of population. There is no municipal police or village watch in the District. In the same year, the total number of persons convicted of any offence, great or small, was 841, or 1 to every 352 of the population. By far the greater number of the convictions were for petty offences. There is 1 jail at Sibságar town, and 2 Subdivisional lock-ups at Golaghát and Jorhát. In 1872, the daily average number of prisoners was 94, of whom 2 were females; the labouring convicts numbered 83. The total cost of the jail amounted to £761, or £8, 3s. 6d. per prisoner; the jail manufactures yielded a net-profit of £92, or an average of £5, 1s. 8d. for each manufacturing prisoner. The death-rate among the prisoners was 30·8 per thousand, as compared with an average of 58·5 during a period of ten years.

As is the case in Assam generally, education has made but little progress among the people. In 1856, the number of schools in the District was only 12, attended by 794 pupils. The figures for 1860 show a positive decrease; but by 1870 the number of schools had risen to 29, and the pupils to 1084. The reforms of Sir G. Campbell, by which the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules was extended to the village schools or *páthsháls*, have produced scanty effect in this part of the country. In 1873, there were 39 schools under inspection, attended by 1440 pupils, showing 1 school to every 73 square miles, and 4·8 pupils to every thousand of the population. In that year, the total expenditure was £897, towards which Government contributed £619. The chief educational establishments are the Government English School at Sibságar town, attended by 133 pupils, and maintained at a cost of £361; and the Normal School, with 13 pupils. The American Baptist Mission, apart from its primary schools, possesses 2 printing presses, and publishes a monthly newspaper in the Assamese language, called the *Arunodaya*, first issued in 1846, whose special object is to promote the extension of education among the people. A second newspaper, the *Dharma Prakás*, was started in 1870 in connection with the Auniaháti *sástrá*, the chief Hindu religious house in the District.

For administrative purposes, the District is divided into the 3

Subdivisions of Sibságar, Jorhát, and Golaghát, and into 5 *thánds* or police circles. The number of *mauzds* or village units, each under a *mauzáddár* or revenue official, is 135. The only municipality in the District is Sibságar town, with a population (1872) of 5278, and a municipal revenue in 1871 of £702; incidence of taxation, 2s. 8d. per head.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Sibságar, like that of the rest of the Assam valley, is comparatively mild and temperate. Scarcely a single month passes without some rain, but the year may be roughly divided into two seasons—the dry and cold season, extending from October to the end of April, and the hot and rainy season, occupying the remainder of the year. Dense fogs prevail in the early mornings from November to February. The prevailing direction of the wind is from the north-east, and it seldom rises above the strength of a moderate breeze. The mean annual temperature is stated to be 74° F. The rainfall during a period of fifteen years has averaged 94·16 inches a year.

The prevailing diseases are fevers of a remittent and intermittent type, dysentery and diarrhoea, pulmonic affections, rheumatism, cutaneous disorders, leprosy, elephantiasis, and goitre. It has been observed that in recent years the endemic fever in Sibságar town has become more susceptible of treatment, owing to the adoption of sanitary improvements. Sporadic cases of cholera occur almost every year; and in 1869, this disease made its appearance in an epidemic form from February to June, and is reported to have carried off about 700 persons. Epidemic small-pox breaks out about every fourth or fifth year, being propagated by the practice of inoculation. In 1874, out of a total number of 3464 deaths reported by the *mauzáddárs*, 1593 were assigned to fever, 780 to bowel complaints, 337 to cholera, and 88 to small-pox. In the same year, the vital statistics for selected areas show a death-rate of 29·7 per thousand in the rural area, and 18·4 in the urban area, which is conterminous with the town of Sibságar. Since 1869, a terrible epizootic has been raging among the cattle and buffaloes of the District. It is identified with the rinderpest of Europe, and is supposed to have been introduced from Bengal. The mortality has been very great, about two-thirds of the total number of cattle in the District having been carried off.

Sibságar.—Subdivision of Sibságar District, Assam. Pop. (1872), 103,237. It comprises the 2 police circles of Sibságar and Birtolá.

Sibságar.—Chief town and civil headquarters of Sibságar District, Assam; situated 11 miles from the south bank of the Brahmaputra, in lat. 26° 59' 10" N., and long. 94° 38' 10" E. Pop. (1872), 5278; municipal revenue (1871-72), £702; rate of taxation, 2s. 8d. per head. Sibságar was one of the capitals of the Aham dynasty, shortly after their conversion to Hinduism. There still exists a magnificent tank, covering

an area of 114 acres, and several old temples on its bank. These works are said to have been constructed by Rájá Sīb Sinh about the year 1722. There are but few houses in the native town which are not in a dilapidated condition. The *bázár*, consisting merely of mud huts, runs along both banks of the Dikhu river. The public buildings and the houses of the European residents are built upon the embankment of the tank. Sibságar is the seat of some river trade. The exports are cotton and rice; the imports, piece-goods and brass-ware. During the cold season, parties of Nágás from the hills bring down cotton and vegetables, to barter for salt, poultry, cattle, and dried fish.

Siddhaur.—*Parganá* in Bára Bánki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Partághanj, on the east by Surájpur, on the south by Haidargarh and Subeha, and on the west by Satrikh *pargands*. Area, 141 square miles, of which 95 square miles are under cultivation. Government land revenue, £11,986. The *parganá* is divided into two sections, north and south. Pop. (1869), 100,937, viz. Hindus, 83,941, and Muhammadans, 16,996. Out of the total of 168 villages, 66 are held under *talukdári*, 54 under *zamindári*, and 48 under *pattidári* tenure. The tract was originally in the hands of the Bhars, who were expelled by the Muhammadans at the time of the invasion of Sayyid Sálár Masáúd. Sayyids still form a great part of the population. The *parganá* was first formed in the time of Akbar.

Siddhaur.—Town in Bára Bánki District, Oudh, and headquarters of Sidhaur *parganá*; situated 16 miles west of the civil station, in lat. 26° 46' N., and long. 81° 26' 10" E. Pop. (1869), 2203. School, registration office, and post office. The village contains an old Sivaite temple, and a Muhammadan mosque and tomb, in memory of one Kázi Kutab, at which fairs are held on occasions of the *Siva-rátri* and *I'd* and *Bakr 'Id* festivals.

Siddheshwara.—Peak in the Bráhmagiri range of mountains, a section of the Western Gháts in the territory of Coorg. Lat. 12° 21' N., long. 76° 3' E. This hill guards the pass by which the highlands of Coorg are entered from the east. On the summit stands a temple dedicated to Siva.

Siddheswar.—Village at the foot of the Sarishpur or Siddheswar range, which forms the boundary between the Districts of Cáchár and Sylhet, Assam, on the south or left bank of the Barák river. There is a celebrated Hindu temple here; and about the 18th March an annual fair is held, attended by 3000 persons. At the same time, a religious gathering for bathing takes place on the opposite bank of the river.

Sidhout (*Sidhátwat*).—Headquarters of Sidhout *táluk*, Cuddapah (Kadapá) District, Madras; situated on the Penner (Pennár or Ponníár) river, in lat. 14° 27' 56" N., and long. 79° 0' 40" E. Pop. (1871), 3759, residing in 860 houses. The town formerly belonged

to Chitwāl State, and later to the Pathāns of Cuddapah; it was taken by Haidar Alī in 1779. In early British times, it was the headquarters of the entire District. The town is notable for its melons.

Sidhpur.—Town in Baroda State, Guzarāt, Bombay; situated on the Saraswatī river, in lat. $23^{\circ} 55' 30''$ N., long. $72^{\circ} 26'$ E. Pop. (1872), 13,534. Sidhpur is a very old town, and a place of Hindu pilgrimage.

Sidlagáttá.—*Táluk* in Kolār District, Mysore. Area, 163 square miles, of which 78 are cultivated. Pop. (1871), 91,849, namely, 89,097 Hindus, 2656 Muhammadans, and 96 Christians. Land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £10,187, or 4s. 3d. per cultivated acre. Forms the upper valley of the Pápaghni river.

Sidlagáttá.—Municipal town in Kolār District, Mysore; situated in lat. $13^{\circ} 23' 40''$ N., and long. $77^{\circ} 54' 41''$ E., 30 miles north-west of Kolār town. Headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name. Pop. (1871), 7009, namely, 6207 were Hindus and 802 Muhammadans. Said to have been founded in 1524 by Sivangi Gauda, a freebooter, whose family extended their power, and held the place for 87 years. Afterwards it passed successively through the hands of the Marhattás, the Mughals, and the *pálegár* of Chik-ballapur.

Sidli.—One of the Dwárs or lowland tracts forming the Eastern Dwárs Subdivision of Goalpára District, Assam. Area, 361 square miles; pop. (1870), 12,696; forest area, 74·37 square miles, including several valuable forests of *sál* timber; cultivated area, 32·70 square miles. In 1870, a settlement was made with the Rájá at a land revenue of £1939; but this amount was never actually collected, and the estate was forthwith placed under the Court of Wards, who have equally failed to realize the demand.

Sígúr Ghát, the corrected spelling for SEGHR (*q.v.*).

Sihonda.—Ancient and decayed town in Bándá District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the bank of the Ken river; distant from Bándá town 11 miles south-east. Pop. (1872), 1477, chiefly Muhammadans. Local tradition declares that the town possessed great importance during the heroic period; but the remains belong chiefly or entirely to Muhammadan times. Capital of an important Division under the Mughals. In 1630 A.D., the rebel Khán Jahán fell at this place in battle against the imperial troops. Sihonda has been gradually declining since the days of Aurangzeb. It is said to have once contained 700 mosques and 900 wells; all the former have fallen to pieces except 4, and most of the latter are now choked up. Ruins of a large fort on a neighbouring hill; temple to Devī Angaleswari, crowns another height near the town. *Tahsili* school.

Sihor.—Town in Bhaunagar State, Bombay; situated in lat. $21^{\circ} 42'$ N., and long. $72^{\circ} 1' 45''$ E. Pop. (1872), 10,028.

Sihor.—Town in Bhopál State, Central India.—*See* SEHORE.

Sihorá.—One of the petty States of Rewa Kántha, Bombay. Area, 14 square miles. The chief is named Suda Parmar Nar Sinhji. Estimated revenue in 1875, £1600; of which £480 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Sihorá.—Central *tahsil* or Subdivision of Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District, Central Provinces. Area, 1196 square miles; pop. (1872), 152,210, residing in 705 villages or townships and 34,915 houses.

Sihorá.—Town in Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. $23^{\circ} 29' N.$, and long. $80^{\circ} 9' E.$, 27 miles from Jabalpur city, on the road from Jabalpur to Mirzápur, and 4 miles north of the Hiran river. Pop. (1872), 3988, chiefly agricultural. Sihorá does a brisk trade in grain and country produce.

Sihorá (Tirora).—Town in Bhandára District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. $21^{\circ} 24' N.$, and long. $79^{\circ} 58' E.$, 30 miles north-east of Bhandára town. Pop. (1872), 2634. Cotton cloth of inferior quality is manufactured. A large tank, south of the town, always contains water. Sihorá has a large Government school and a police outpost.

Sijakpur.—State in Bombay.—See SEJAKPUR.

Sijáwal.—*Táluk* of Lárkhána Sub-District, Shikárpur, Sind. Area, 192 square miles; pop. (1872), 15,107. Total revenue (1873-74), £6577.

Siju.—Village in the Gáro Hills District, Assam, on the Sameswarí river, with a considerable population engaged in fishing. In the neighbourhood are coal-mines, which were at one time worked by the Rájá of Susáng.

Sikandarábád (Secunderábád).—North-western *tahsil* of Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces; stretching inland from the east bank of the Jumna (Jamuná), and watered by two branches of the Ganges Canal. The East Indian Railway traverses the *tahsil* from end to end, with two stations (at Sikandarábád and Dádri). Area of *tahsil*, 524 square miles, of which 370 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 237,374. Land revenue, £28,996; total Government revenue, £32,173; rental paid by cultivators, £76,132.

Sikandarábád (Secunderábád).—Town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of Sikandarábád *tahsil*. Pop. (1872), 18,349, including 10,933 Hindus and 7395 Muham-madans. Situated on the Delhi branch of the Grand Trunk Road, in lat. $28^{\circ} 27' 10'' N.$, and long. $77^{\circ} 44' 40'' E.$, 10 miles east of Bulandshahr town. Two good *bázárs*, the centre of the local trade in cotton, sugar, and grain. Founded by Sikandar Lodi in 1498; headquarters of a *mahál* under Akbar; centre of the fief of Najib-ud-daulá. Saádat Khán, Viceroy of Oudh, attacked and defeated the Marhattá force here in 1736. The Ját army of Bhartpur encamped at Sikandarábád in 1764, but fled across the Jumna (Jamuná) on the death of Suráj Mall and defeat of Jaháwar Sinh. Station of Perron's

brigade under the Marhattás. Occupied by Colonel James Skinner after the battle of Aligarh. During the Mutiny of 1857, the neighbouring Gújars, Rájputs, and Muhammadans attacked and plundered Sikandarábád; but Colonel Greathed's column relieved the town on September 27th, 1857. Prosperity returned with the establishment of order, and Sikandarábád is now one of the most flourishing places in the District. There is a station on the East Indian Railway, 4 miles south of the town, with which it is connected by a metalled road. *Tahsili* and police station outside the town in a fortified building; charitable dispensary; Anglo-vernacular school; branch of Church of England Mission. Several handsome mosques and temples. Residence of Munshí Lakshman Sarúp, a large landholder and honorary magistrate, and of Munshi Hargopál, a well-known Persian and Urdu poet. Manufacture of *pagris* (head-dresses). Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1519; from taxes, £960, or 1s. 0½d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Sikandarábád.—Town and cantonment in the Nizám's Dominions.
—See SECUNDERABAD.

Sikandarpur.—*Parganá* in Unao District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Pariar, on the east by Unao, on the south by Harha, and on the west by Cawnpore District in the North-Western Provinces. Area, 58 square miles, or 37,023 acres. Chief products, barley and sugarcane. Government land revenue, £6087, or an average assessment of 3s. 3½d. per acre. The *parganá* comprises 51 villages, of which 48 are in the hands of Purihar Kshattriyas or Rájputs. The history of this clan is thus described in Mr. Elliott's *Chronicles of Unao*, pp. 58-60:—

'The present Purihars in Unao District inhabit the *parganá* of Sarosi, or, as it has recently become habitual to call it, Sikandarpur. According to their own traditions, they came from a place called Jigini (which is not to be found on the map), or Srínagar, *i.e.* Kashmír. From that high hill country they were driven—we know not by what cause—to inhabit the sandy plains of Márwár. Expelled thence, they were broken into innumerable little principalities, which found no abiding place, and have undergone continual changes, till we meet with a small portion of the clan who settled, comparatively a short time ago, in a little corner of Oudh; and even here the name of the beautiful valley from which they came ten centuries ago is still common in the mouths of men.

'The story of the settling of the ancestors of the clan in Sarosi is thus told. About three hundred years ago, in the time of Humáyun, Emperor of Delhi, a Dikhit girl from Purenda was married to the son of the Purihar Rájá, who lived at Jigini, across the Jumna. The bridegroom came with a large escort of his friends and brotherhood to celebrate the marriage, and the party on their journey passed through Sarosi. As they sat down around a well (the site of which is still shown), they

asked who were the lords of the fort which stood not far off. They were told that the fort was held by Dhobis (washermen) and other Súdras who owned the neighbouring country. The procession then went on to Purenda, and returning, conducted the bride to her home. Just before the *Holi* festival, a party, headed by Bhagé Sinh, returned, waited for the evening of that riotous feast, and then, when the guards of the fort were heavy with wine, and no danger was looked for, suddenly attacked and slaughtered them, and made themselves masters of the fort and the surrounding country.

‘Bhagé Sinh had four sons, and they divided the eighty-four villages he had conquered at his death. Asis and Salhu, the two eldest sons, took the largest portion of the estate—twenty villages falling to the former, and to the latter forty-two. The third son, Manik, was a devotee, and refused to be troubled with worldly affairs. All he asked for was one village on the banks of the Ganges, where he might spend his life in worship, and wash away his sins three times a day in the holy stream. The youngest son, Bhuledhán, was quite a boy at the time of his father's death, and took what share his brothers chose to give him, and they do not seem to have treated him badly.

‘The law of primogeniture did not exist among the family, and every son, as he grew up and married, claimed his right to a separate share of his father's inheritance; and thus the ancestral estate constantly dwindled as fresh slices were cut off it, till at last the whole family were a set of impoverished gentlemen, who kept up none of the dignity which had belonged to the first conquerors, Bhagé Sinh and his sons. For six generations they stagnated thus, no important event marking their history till the time of Hira Sinh. The family property in his time had grown very small, and he had five sons to divide it amongst; and, to add to his misfortunes, he was accused of some crime, thrown into prison at Faizábád, and loaded with chains. With the chains on his legs he escaped, arrived safely at Sarosi, and lay in hiding there. His pride being thus broken, he resolved to send his third son, Kalandar Sinh, to take service in the Company's army. He rose to be Subahdár Major in the 49th Regiment of Native Infantry; and in this position, through his supposed influence with the Resident, became a very considerable man. He knew that as long as he was at hand, no *chakladár* or governor would venture to treat the Purihar *zamindárs* with injustice; but on his death they would be again at the mercy of the local authorities. He therefore collected all the members of the brotherhood who were descended from Asis, and persuaded them to mass their divided holdings nominally into one large estate, of which his nephew Ghuláb Sinh should be the representative *tálukdár*; so that while in reality each small shareholder retained sole possession of his own share, they should present the appearance of a powerful and united *táluk*, making Ghuláb

Sinh their nominal head. Thus the *chakladdrs* would be afraid to touch a man who seemed to hold so large an estate, though in reality he only enjoyed a small portion of it. The brotherhood consented to this, and from 1840 till British annexation the estate was held in the name of Ghuláb Sinh alone, and they had no further trouble from the oppressions of the *chakladdrs*.'

Sikandra.—Town in Agra District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. $27^{\circ} 12' 59''$ N., and long. $77^{\circ} 59' 34''$ E., 5 miles north-west of Agra city, on the Muttra road. Chiefly noticeable as containing the tomb of Akbar, commenced by that monarch, and finished by his son Jahángír in 1613. Fergusson describes the mausoleum as the most characteristic of Akbar's buildings. It is quite unlike any other tomb in India erected before or since, and the design is believed by Fergusson to be borrowed from a Hindu, or, more correctly, a Buddhist model. It is surrounded by an extensive garden of 40 acres, still kept up, approached on each side by archways of red sandstone, the principal gateway being of magnificent proportions.

'In the centre of this garden, on a raised platform, stands the tomb itself, of a pyramidal form. The lower terrace measures 320 feet each way, exclusive of the angle towers. It is 30 feet in height, and pierced by ten great arches on each face, and with a larger entrance, adorned with a mosaic of marble in the centre.

'On this terrace stands another far more ornate, measuring 186 feet on each side, and 14 feet 9 inches in height. A third and fourth, of similar design, and respectively 15 feet 2 inches and 14 feet 6 inches high, stand on this; all these being of red sandstone. Within and above the last is a white marble enclosure, 157 feet each way, or externally just half the length of the lowest terrace, its outer wall entirely composed of marble trellis-work of the most beautiful patterns. Inside, it is surrounded by a colonnade or cloister of the same material, in the centre of which, on a raised platform, is the tombstone of the founder, a splendid piece of the most beautiful Arabesque tracery. This, however, is not the true burial-place; but the mortal remains of the great king repose under a far plainer tombstone in a vaulted chamber in the basement, 35 feet square, exactly under the simulated tomb that adorns the summit of the mausoleum.

'The total height of the building now is a little more than 100 feet to the top of the angle pavilions; and a central dome, 30 or 40 feet higher, which is the proportion that the base gives, seems just what is wanted to make this tomb as beautiful in outline and in proportion as it is in detail. Had it been so completed, it certainly would have ranked next to the Táj among Indian mausolea.'

An asylum was established at Sikandra in 1837-38, for the orphans whose parents had perished in the terrible famine of that year.

Sikandrapur.—Eastern *tahsíl* of Azamgarh District, North-Western Provinces; lying along the southern bank of the river Gogra. Area, 546 square miles, of which 329 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 281,809. Land revenue, £25,352; total Government revenue, £27,931; rental paid by cultivators, £62,487.

Sikandra Ráo.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Aligarh District, North-Western Provinces; consisting chiefly of a fertile upland plain, watered in every direction by distributaries of the Ganges Canal. Area, 342 square miles, of which 233 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 193,611. Land revenue, £27,883; total Government revenue, £30,672; rental paid by cultivators, £59,411.

Sikandra Ráo.—Town in Aligarh District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of Sikandra Ráo *tahsíl*; situated in lat. $27^{\circ} 41' 10''$ N., and long. $78^{\circ} 25' 15''$ E., on the Cawnpore road, 23 miles south-east of Koil. Pop. (1872), 12,642, consisting of 7598 Hindus and 5044 Muhammadans. Squalid, poor-looking town, on a low, badly drained site. A great swamp spreads eastward, attaining a length of 4 miles during the rains. Founded in the 15th century by Sikandar Lodi, and afterwards given in *jágír* to Ráo Khán, an Afghán, from which circumstances the town derives its compound name. During the Mutiny of 1857, Ghaus Khán of Sikandra Ráo was one of the leading rebels, and held Koil as deputy for Walidád Khán of Málágarh. Kundir Sinh, a Pundír Rájput, did good service on the British side, and held the *parganá* as Názim. Mosque dating from Akbar's time; ruined house in the town, once the residence of the Muhammadan governor. *Tahsili*, police station, post office, school, dispensary. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £797; from taxes, £632, or 1s. per head of population (12,530) within municipal limits.

Sikhar.—Town and fort in Benares District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the left bank of the Ganges, nearly opposite Chunár, in lat. $25^{\circ} 8'$ N., and long. $82^{\circ} 53'$ E. Garrisoned in 1781 by the rebellious Rájá Cháit Sinh, but stormed by the British under Lieutenant Polhill.

Sikkim.—Native State in the Eastern Himálaya Mountains; bounded on the north and north-east by Thibet, on the south-east by Bhután, on the south by the British District of Dárjiling, and on the west by Nepál. Situated between $27^{\circ} 9'$ and $27^{\circ} 58'$ N. lat., and between $88^{\circ} 4'$ and 89° E. long.; covering an area of about 1550 square miles, with an estimated population of 7000. The capital is Tumlung, where the Rájá resides during the winter and spring, usually going to his estates at Chumbi in Thibet in summer to avoid the heavy rains of Sikkim. The Thibetan name for Sikkim is *Dingjing* or *Demo-jong*, and for the people *Deunjong Mars*; the Gúrkha name for the people of Sikkim (which has been adopted by English writers) is *Lepcha*; but they call themselves *Rong*, according to Mr. Clements Markham.

Physical Aspects.—The whole of Sikkim is situated at a considerable elevation within the Himálayan mountain-zone. Between Dárjiling and Tumlung, the mountains are generally lower than those of Dárjiling itself. North of Tumlung, the passes into Thibet have been recently visited by Mr. Blanford and Mr. Edgar, and found to be of great height. The most southerly of these passes (as described by Mr. Markham, in the introduction to his *Thibet*, second edition, 1879) is that of Jelep-la, about 50 miles beyond Tumlung, 13,000 feet above sea level. The two next to the north are those of Guatiula and Yak-la, the latter 14,000 feet high: these, Mr. Markham says, are rarely interrupted by snow for many days, and form the easiest route into the Chumbi valley of Thibet. Further to the north is the Cho-la Pass, 15,000 feet high, on the direct road from Tumlung to Chumbi. The Yak-la, Cho-la, and Jelep-la Passes cross the lofty spur of the Himálayas separating the Chumbi and Tista valleys. Then comes the Tankra-la Pass, 16,083 feet high, the most snowy pass in Sikkim.

Sikkim is drained by the river TISTA, and its affluents the Lachen, the Lachung, the Búri Ranjít, the Moing, the Rangri, and the Rangchu. The Am-machu rises near Parijong, at the foot of the Chamalhari Peak (23,929 feet), and flows through the Chumbi valley, which is a strip of Thibetan territory separating Sikkim from Bhután. In this lower part of its course, the Am-machu passes into the British District of Jalpái-guri, under the name of the TORSHA. The rivers of Sikkim generally run in very deep ravines between the mountains; and the ascent from the bank, for the first thousand feet, is almost precipitous. All the rivers are very rapid. According to Dr. Hooker's measurement, the Ranjít, in a course of 23 miles, between the *ghát* above the Kulhait river and that at the cane-bridge below Dárjiling, falls 987 feet; whilst the Tista falls 821 feet in about 10 miles, and flows in places at the rate of 14 miles an hour.

Near Mintugong are some copper mines, worked by Nepálese. Mr. Edgar (*Report on a Visit to Sikkim and the Thibetan Frontier*, 1874, p. 84) found that the Bhutiá population are superstitiously averse to any search for metals below the earth's surface; and consequently little is known of the mineral resources of the country. Mr. Edgar, however, was of opinion that every mine is abandoned long before the vein of ore has been exhausted.

The valleys and slopes of this mountainous land are clothed with dense jungle, the vegetation in which varies, according to the elevation, from the cotton, banian, fig, and other tropical trees, which are found in the lower zones, to the fir, rhododendron, and dwarf bamboo, which appear above the level of 10,000 feet. The bamboo grows to enormous size, often attaining a diameter of 7 to 9 inches. The canes, which are largely used in the construction of the well-known

Himálayan cane-bridges, grow principally in the bamboo jungles. The cane is found of the diameter of $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 inches; and a single piece was once traced through the jungle by Colonel Gawler (*Sikkim; Mountain and Jungle Warfare*, 1873, p. 13) for a distance of 80 yards without finding the end. The wild animals are the same as those found in the jungles of DARJILING. Travellers in Sikkim suffer greatly from the *pípsa*, and from the leeches which abound everywhere. Colonel Gawler writes of them: 'The jungles are infested with leeches, which penetrate loosely woven clothes, and deprive the wearer of a good deal of blood before he finds them out. They get far up the noses of horses, goats, etc., and cannot be removed without subjecting the poor animal to a couple of days without water, which, being afterwards offered to him, the leeches also want to drink, and may be seized. If the leeches are allowed to remain, the animals become reduced to a skeleton.'

History.—Sikkim was known to early European travellers, such as Horace della Penna and Samuel Van de Putte, under the name of *Bramashon* (see Markham's *Thibet*, p. 64); whilst Bogle called it *Demojong*. Local traditions assert that the ancestors of the Mahá-rájás of Sikkim originally came from the neighbourhood of Lhasa in Thibet, and settled at Gantak. About the middle of the 16th century, the head of the family was named Pencho Namgay; and to him repaired three Thibetan monks, professors of the *Dupka* (or 'Red Cap') sect of Buddhism, who were disgusted at the predominance of the *Galukpa* sect in Thibet. These Lamas, according to Mr. Edgar's *Report*, succeeded in converting the Lepchas of Sikkim to their own faith, and in making Pencho Namgay Rájá of the land. The *avatars* of two of these Lamas are now the heads, respectively, of the great monasteries of Pemiongchi and T'assiding. In 1788, the Gúrkhas invaded Sikkim, in the governorship of the Morang, and only retired, in 1789, on the Thibetan Government ceding to them a piece of territory at the head of the Kutí Pass. But in 1792, on a second invasion of Thibetan territory by the Gúrkhas, an immense Chinese army advanced to the support of the Thibetans, defeated the Gúrkhas, and dictated terms to them almost at the gates of Khatmandu. On the breaking out of the Nepál war in 1814, Major Latter, at the head of a British force, occupied the Morang, and formed an alliance with the Rájá of Sikkim, who gladly seized the opportunity of revenging himself on the Gúrkhas. At the close of the war, in 1816, the Rájá was rewarded by a considerable accession of territory, which had been ceded to the British by Nepál, and by the usual guarantee of protection. In February 1835, the Rájá made a formal cession of Dárjling to the British, and received a pension of £300 per annum in acknowledgment thereof. There was, however, a standing cause of quarrel between the Rájá and the paramount power, due to the prevalence of slavery in Sikkim: the Rájá's subjects were

inveterate kidnappers, and the Rájá himself was most anxious to obtain from the British authorities the restoration of runaway slaves. With some absurd notion of enforcing the latter demand, two gentlemen (Dr. Campbell, the Superintendent of Dárjiling, and Dr. Hooker, the famous naturalist) were seized in 1849, whilst travelling in Sikkim, and detained for six weeks. As a punishment for this outrage, the Rájá's pension was stopped, and a piece of territory, including the lower course of the Tista and the Sikkim *taráí*, was annexed. The practice, however, of kidnapping Bengáli subjects of the British Crown was not discontinued; and two specially gross cases, in 1860, led to an order from Calcutta, that the Sikkim territory, north of the Rammán river and west of the Búri Ranjít, should be occupied until restitution was made. Colonel Gawler, at the head of a British force, with the Hon. Ashley Eden as envoy, advanced into Sikkim, and proceeded to Tumlung, when the Rájá was forced to make full restitution, and to sign another treaty, in March 1861, which secured the rights of free trade, of protection for travellers, and of road-making. Since the ratification of this treaty, relations with Sikkim have been uniformly friendly, and the country has been repeatedly explored by travellers, who have followed in the footsteps of Dr. Hooker. In 1873, the Rájá of Sikkim, accompanied by his brother and minister, Changzed Rabu (a man of great abilities and predominating influence), and other members of his family, paid a visit to the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal at Dárjiling; and in the following winter, Mr. Edgar, C.S.I., returned the Rájá's visit, as the representative of the Bengal Government, and obtained the materials for the valuable *Report* quoted above.

Population, etc.—The population of Sikkim was estimated by Dr. Campbell at 7000; of whom about 3000 are Lepchas, 2000 Bhutias, and 1000 Limbus. Eastward of the Tista, Colonel Gawler found some Thibetans. The Buddhist monks—each monastery under its own head Lama—form a numerous and influential section of the population. The chief villages are Tumlung (the capital) and Gantak; the chief monasteries are those of Labrong near Tumlung, Pemiongchi, and Tassiding. The head of the Labrong monastery is called the Kupgain Lama; and Mr. Edgar states that he is also the superior of Pemiongchi, and of nearly two-thirds of the monasteries of Sikkim. On the Tumlung Hill, besides the Rájá's palace, there are a number of other substantially built houses belonging to the various officials of the State. Each house is surrounded by some cultivated land, in which are generally a few clumps of bamboos or fruit-trees. During the rainy season, many of these houses are vacant, the officials being absent with the Rájá at Chumbi in Thibet. The house of the Kázi at Gantak is described as 'a very ornamental building of wattle and dab, raised on stout posts.'

Agriculture, Land Tenures, and Revenue System.—The chief cultivated crops in the valleys and in the clearings on the hills of Sikkim are wheat, buckwheat, barley, *marud*, maize, and a little rice; but no more grain is grown than suffices for local consumption. Cardamoms and oil-seeds are cultivated in the low valleys in the extreme west of the State. Plantains, oranges, and other fruits are grown in the gardens. Cattle and ponies are imported from Thibet. Between Pemiongchi and the little Ranjft, there is a curious tract of level country, described by Mr. Edgar as a great even ledge, some square miles in extent, with hills rising abruptly from it on three sides, whilst on the fourth side there is a precipitous fall of many hundred feet. The soil of this plain is exceedingly rich, as it catches all the silt of the upper hills; and every inch of it is highly cultivated, chiefly with cardamoms, oil-seeds, and other valuable crops.

Mr. Edgar gives the following interesting account of the revenue system and land tenures:—

‘There are twelve Kázis in Sikkim, and several other officers with various names exercise jurisdiction over specific tracts of land. Each of these officers assesses the revenue payable by all the people settled on the lands within his jurisdiction, and, as far as I can make out, keeps the greater portion for himself, paying over to the Rájá a certain fixed contribution. At the same time, he has no proprietary right in the lands, though the Kázis have at least a kind of hereditary title to their office. The Kázis and other officers exercise limited civil and criminal jurisdiction within the lands the revenue of which they collect, all important cases being referred to the Rájá, and decided by Changzed (the minister) and the Diwáns, who are at present three in number. The cultivators have no title to the soil, and a man can settle down and cultivate any land he may find unoccupied without any formality whatever; and when once he has occupied the land, no one but the Rájá can turn him out. But the Rájá can eject him at any time; and if he should cease to occupy the land, he would not retain any lien upon it. There is a kind of tenant-right, however, under which cultivators are enabled to dispose of unexhausted improvements. Thus, as it was explained to me, a man who has terraced a piece of hillside could not sell the land, but is allowed to sell the right of using the terraces. This custom is acknowledged not to be absolutely a right, but more of the nature of an indulgence on the part of the Rájá, by whom it was allowed to grow up for the sake of convenience.

‘The land is not assessed, and pays no revenue. The assessment is on the revenue-payer personally. I think that in theory he is allowed the use of the Rájá’s land in order that he may live and be able to render to the Rájá the services which he is bound to perform as the Rájá’s live chattel; and possibly if the system were carried to theoretical

perfection, he would be bound to give over to the Rájá all the net produce of the land—that is, all the fruit of his labour beyond what might be actually necessary to support himself and his family. In practice, the subject is only bound to give a certain portion of his labour, or of the fruit of his labour, to the State; and when he does not give actual service, the amount of his property is roughly assessed, and his contribution to the State fixed accordingly; but such assessment is made without the slightest reference to the amount of land occupied by the subject. The value of his wives and children, slaves, cattle, furniture, etc., are all taken into account, but not the extent of his fields.' The Lamas are not bound to labour for the Rájá, and they pay no dues of any kind, no matter how much land may be cultivated by themselves or their bondsmen.

Commerce, etc.—There are several trade routes through Sikkim, from the British District of Dárjiling into Thibet; but owing partly to the natural difficulties of the country, and partly to the jealousy of the Thibetans, these are not much used. At Rangpo-tang, on the Tísta, and at other points, there are good cane-bridges, and in some places there are raft-ferries; but all roads are mere hill bridle-paths, and communication is exceedingly imperfect and difficult. The *Report* of the British envoy in 1861 stated that a considerable trade between Bengal and Thibet would be the almost certain result of improved communications through Sikkim; the Thibetans exporting gold, silver, ponies, musk, borax, wool, turquoises, silk, and *manjit* or madder, in exchange for broadcloth, bleached goods, tobacco, and pearls. In addition to this transit trade, Sikkim supplies ponies, sheep, and jungle produce to the British territory of Dárjiling, and imports therefrom some British manufactures, tobacco, etc. A registration station has been established at Ranjít. In 1876-77, the total exports from Sikkim into Dárjiling were valued at £80,265, of which timber alone represented £70,870; the total imports were valued at £14,164, chiefly indigo (£6600), cattle (£2322), metals (£1773), piece-goods (£1357), tobacco (£967). In 1877-78, the registered exports fell to £1822, and the imports to £1659.

Climate and Medical Aspects.—The ranges between Dárjiling and Tumlung are lower than Dárjiling itself, and generally less cool; whilst the deep narrow valleys of most of the rivers have a hot and stifling climate, notorious for its malaria and jungle-fever. The rainfall, like that of Dárjiling, is very heavy. There is usually a little dulness, and perhaps rain, late in December and early in January; after which the weather remains bright and clear until May, when storms, growing more and more frequent, usher in the rainy season, which lasts till October.

Sikrol (*Sírol*).—Western suburb of BENARES CITY, containing the military cantonments, civil station, and European quarter. Lat. 25°

20' 20" N., long. 83° 1' 20" E. The little river Barná flows through the suburb, dividing it into two parts. Church, official buildings, numerous well-built bungalows, standing amid gardens and groves.

Silái.—River of Bengal; rises in the Fiscal Division of Ládthurká, Mámbhúm District, and flows in a south-easterly direction into the District of Midnapur. After a tortuous course it falls into the RUPNARAYAN, of which it forms the chief tributary, near the point where that river touches the eastern boundary of Midnapur. The Silái is subject to destructive floods; it is only navigable throughout the year for a short distance in its lower reaches, which are within tidal influence. It is fed by two small streams from Bánkurá District, on the north—the Purandar-nadi and Gopa-nadi. The other and principal feeder of the Silái is the Buri-nadi, which takes its rise in the north-west of Midnapur District, and flows east into the Silái near Nárájol.

Silána.—One of the petty States of South Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £300; of which £10 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Silánáth.—Village in Darbhanga District, Bengal; situated on the Kamlá river, in lat. 26° 34' 30" N., and long. 86° 9' 45" E.; pop. (1872), 2520. Noted for its annual fair held in March or April for about 15 days, and attended by 15,000 people, chiefly from the *tardí*. Live stock, of the finest breeds in Tírhut, and grain are the principal articles of commerce; from the Nepál Hills are brought iron-ore, hatchets, *tejpát* or bay-leaves, and musk. The fair doubtless had its origin in pilgrims coming to visit a temple of Mahádeo, which stood ~~here~~; but the Kamlá has changed its course, and washed the temple away, and now no traces of it remain.

Silang.—Mountain range and town in the Khási and Jáintia Hills District, Assam.—See SHILLONG.

Silchar.—Chief town of the District of Cáchár, Assam; situated in lat. 24° 49' 40" N., and long. 92° 50' 48" E., on the south bank of the Barák river. Area of municipal union, 375 square miles; pop. (1872), 3729; municipal income in 1876-77, £785; rate of taxation, 4s. per head. Silchar is the headquarters of the civil administration, and also contains military cantonments, covering an area of 140 acres. In 1875, the 3d Bengal Native Infantry was stationed here, consisting of 7 European officers and 525 natives of all ranks. A handsome new church has been erected since the earthquake of 1869. The town is built on a neck of land formed by a bend in the river. The surface is swampy in some parts, but in others it rises into low sandy hillocks, locally called *tílás*. In recent years, much attention has been paid to sanitary improvements. A large trading fair or *melá* is held annually in January, lasting for about seven days. The average attendance is estimated at 20,000

persons; the articles sold include cotton goods and ponies from Manipur. On 10th January 1869, a severe shock of earthquake was felt at Silchár. The church and public buildings fell down, and the greater part of the *básár* was laid in ruins. The surface was rent into deep fissures, and in some parts sank down as much as from 15 to 30 feet.

Silhetí.—Chiefship in Ráipur District, Central Provinces; 60 miles north-west of Ráipur town; comprising 20 villages, formerly part of Gandai chiefship. The chief is a Gond. The town of Silhetí lies in lat. $21^{\circ} 47' N.$, and long. $81^{\circ} 9' E.$

Sillána.—Native State in Central India.—*See* SAILANA.

Siller (*Selere*).—River in Vizagapatam District, Madras. Flows east then north to Umada, where it turns west, and finally south-west, and joins the Saveri at Moat, about 20 miles north-east of the junction of the latter stream with the Godávári. The Siller has a very tortuous course through mountainous country; total length, about 150 miles.

Silpáta.—Village in Chatgári Dwár, Darrang District, Assam, at which a large fair is held annually during the *Bor Bihu* festival, chiefly attended by the Cáchári population.

Simgá.—Northern *tahsil* or Subdivision of Ráipur District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 207,866, on an area of 1401 square miles; residing in 744 villages or townships and 45,296 houses.

Simgá.—Town in Ráipur District, Central Provinces, on the Seo river; 28 miles north of Ráipur town, on the road to Biláspur. Estimated pop. 1000. Simgá has a town school, police post, and post office.

Simháchalam.—Temple in Vizagapatam District, Madras.—*See* SINHACHALAM.

Simla.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, consisting of several detached plots of territory; situated among the hills of the lower Himálayan system. Area, 18 square miles; population in 1868, 33,995. The administrative headquarters are at SIMLA, the summer capital of India, in lat. $31^{\circ} 6' N.$, and long $77^{\circ} 11' E.$

Physical Aspects.—The mountains of Simla District and the surrounding Native States compose the southern outliers of the great central chain of the Eastern Himálayas. They descend in a gradual series from the main chain itself in Bashahr State to the general level of the Punjab plain in Umballa (Ambála) District, thus forming a transverse south-westerly spur between the great basins of the Ganges and the Indus, here respectively represented by their tributaries the Jumna (Jamuná) and the Sutlej. A few miles north-east of Simla, the spur divides into two main ridges, one of which curves round the Sutlej valley toward the north-west, while the other, crowned by the sanatorium of Simla, trends south-eastward to a point a few miles north of Subáthu, where it merges at right angles in the mountains of the Outer or Sub-Himálayan system, which run parallel to the principal range. South and east of Simla the

hills between the Sutlej and the Tons centre in the great peak of CHOR, 11,982 feet above the sea. Throughout all the hills, forests of *deodār* abound, while rhododendrons clothe the slopes up to the limit of perpetual snow. The scenery in the immediate neighbourhood of Simla itself presents a series of magnificent views, embracing on the south the Ambála plains, with the Subáthu and Kasauli Hills in the foreground, and the massive block of the Chor a little to the left; while just below the spectator's feet a series of huge ravines lead down into the deep valleys which score the mountain-sides. Northwards, the eye wanders over a network of confused chains, rising range above range, and crowned in the distance by a crescent of snowy peaks, standing out in bold relief against the clear background of the sky. The principal torrents of the surrounding tracts are the Pabar, the Giri Ganga, the Gambhar, and the Sarsa.

History.—The acquisition of the patches of territory composing Simla District dates from the period of the Gúrkha war in 1815-16. At a very early time the Hill States, together with the outer portion of Kángra District, probably formed part of the Katoch kingdom of JALANDHAR (Jullundur); and, after the disruption of that principality, they continued to be governed by Hindu Rájás till the beginning of the present century. After the encroachments of the Gúrkhas led to the British invasion of their dominions in 1815, our troops remained in possession of the whole block of hill country between the Gogra and the Sutlej. Kumáun and the Dehrá Dún became a portion of British territory; a few separate localities were retained as military posts, and a portion of Keunthál State was sold to the Rájá of Patiála. With these exceptions, however, the whole of the conquered tract was restored to the Hill Rájás, from whom it had been wrested by the Gúrkhas. Garhwál State became attached to the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, but the remaining principalities rank among the dependencies of the Punjab, and are known collectively as the Simla Hill States. From one or other of these, the plots now composing the little District of Simla have been gradually acquired. Part of the hill over which the Simla sanatorium now spreads was retained by Government in 1816, and an additional strip of land was obtained from Keunthál in 1830. The spur known as Jutogh, $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles from the station, was acquired by exchange from Patiála in 1843, as the equivalent of two villages in Barauli. Kotkhai Kotgarh, again, fell into our hands through the abdication of its Ráná, who refused to accept charge of the petty State. The Kasauli Hill originally belonged to Bija, but was relinquished in consideration of a small annual payment. Subáthu Hill was retained from the beginning as a military fort; and the other fragments of the District have been added at various dates.

Population.—The results of the Census of 1868 can hardly be regarded as fairly representing the actual state of the District, for with the exception of Barauli and Kotkhai, the British territory possesses no rural population of its own. Nor do the figures show the real normal number of inhabitants on the plots which compose the District, as the Census was taken in January, one of the months when Simla and Kasauli are almost empty. Nevertheless, for the sake of uniformity, the statistics may be appended for what they are worth. The enumeration extended over an area of 18 square miles, and disclosed a total population of 53,995 persons, inhabiting 7880 houses. Persons per square mile, 1888; houses per square mile, 440; persons per house, 4'31. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 21,619; females, 12,376: proportion of males, 63'60 per cent. This great discrepancy between the sexes is due to the number of male immigrants connected with the sanatoria of Simla and Kasauli, who do not bring their families with them. The number of Hindus was 24,444, or 71'90 per cent.; of Muhammadans, 5525, or 16'25 per cent.; of Sikhs, 410, or 1'20 per cent.; and of 'others,' 3616, or 10'64 per cent. According to the returns of occupation, 13,351 persons were engaged in agriculture, while 20,644 belonged to the non-agricultural classes. Bráhmans numbered 2011. Among these the Sásani gráde ranks highest in popular estimation, and supplies the Rájás and Ránás of the Hill States with priests. Others of the Bráhmans engage in agriculture. The Rájputs numbered in 1868, 5557; they resemble their hill brethren in Kángra. The Kanets (8969 in number) form the characteristic tribe of the Simla States, and are popularly supposed to be Rájputs who have lost caste by buying wives and permitting the re-marriage of widows. All classes of the hill population are simple-minded, orderly people, truthful in character and submissive to authority, so that they scarcely require to be ruled. The chief towns (or stations) are SIMLA (14,848 in July 1869), KASAU LI, DAGSHAI, SUBATHU, SOLAN, and KALKA.

Agriculture, etc.—The time of sowing and harvesting in the hill country depends very greatly upon the elevation. Cultivation is carried on among all the lower valleys, but even more rudely than in the similar glens of Kángra District. The fields are artificial terraces, built up against the mountain-sides, and sown with maize, pulses, or millet for the autumn, and with wheat for the spring harvest. Poppy, hemp, turmeric, ginger, and potatoes form the principal staples raised for exportation to the plains. The last-named crop, introduced under British rule, has rapidly grown in favour, and now occupies many fresh clearings on the hillsides in the neighbourhood of Simla. Land is measured, not by superficial extent, but by the quantity of seed which is required to sow it. Most of the cultivators till their own little plots, and rent is practically unknown. Throughout the hills,

the employment of hired labour for agricultural purposes is almost unknown, the people combining together to aid one another in special undertakings, and expecting to receive similar help in return whenever they may require it. Wages for artisans and day-labourers in 1872-73 ranged from 9d. to 1s. 6d. for skilled hands, and from 4½d. to 7½d. for coolies. Prices of food grains ruled as follows on the 1st of January 1873 :—Wheat, 13 *seers* per rupee, or 8s. 7d. per cwt. ; barley, 16 *seers* per rupee, or 7s. per cwt. ; Indian corn, 15 *seers* per rupee, or 7s. 6d. per cwt. ; rice, 5 *seers* per rupee, or 22s. 5d. per cwt.

Commerce, Communications, etc.—The trade of the District centres mainly in the *bázárs* of SIMLA, which forms a considerable entrepôt for the produce of the hill tracts. RAMPUR, on the Sutlej, has also some importance as a depôt for the shawl-wool (*pashm*) brought in by the mountaineers of Spiti and of Chinese Tartary. Part of it is worked up on the spot into coarse shawls, of the kind now made at Ludhiána and Amritsar (Umritsur), and known as Rámpur *chadars* ; but the greater part is bought up by merchants for exportation to British India. The hill paths are so steep that most of the wool is brought down on the backs of the sheep, which are then sheared, and laden with grain for the return journey. The Rámpur fair, on the 10th and 11th of November, attracts a large number of hillmen and of traders from the plains. The main roads of the Simla Hills are those which lead from Kálka to Simla, and from Simla towards Rámpur and Chini. Only small portions, however, lie actually within British territory. The old road from Kálka to Simla, *viâ* Kasauli and Subáthu, is practicable for horses, mules, ponies, or cattle, but not for wheeled conveyances. The distance by this route is 41 miles, and the journey can be performed by relays of ponies in eight hours. The new cart-road takes a more circuitous route, *viâ* Dagshai and Solan. The distance amounts to 57 miles, and two-wheeled carts traverse the whole distance in twelve hours. All the heavy traffic between Simla and the plains passes by this route. Staging bungalows have been built on all the roads at frequent intervals. A line of telegraph follows the old road, with stations at Kálka, Kasauli, and Simla.

Administration.—The Simla Hill States are under the superintendence of the Deputy Commissioner of Simla, subordinate to the Commissioner at Umballa (Ambála). The total imperial revenue of the District amounted in 1872-73 to £23,384, of which sum the land tax contributed £15,816. The only other items of importance were stamps and excise. The number of civil and revenue judges in the same year was 6, and the number of magistrates 5. The police force numbered 201 officers and men, being at the rate of 1 man to every 1691 of the population. The Simla jail contained in 1872 a total of 118 prisoners, with a daily average of 14.89. There were

750 children receiving education in 1872-73. The educational establishments include Bishop Cotton's School, a District School, Roman Catholic Female Orphanage, Punjab Girls' School, Mayo Industrial Girls' School, and American Presbyterian Mission at Subáthu. The only municipality is that of SIMLA.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the Simla Hills is admirably adapted to the European constitution, and the District has therefore been selected as the site of numerous sanatoria and cantonments. The mean temperature at Simla for each month of the year is as follows:—January, 40° F.; February, 44·1°; March, 53·4°; April, 61·3°; May, 66·3°; June, 80·9°; July, 75·5°; August, 78·1°; September, 70°; October, 67·9°; November, 52·3°; December, 46·1° F. The average annual rainfall amounts to 78·3 inches, according to a calculation made in 1869 upon observations extending over 16 years. Cholera visited Simla, Kasauli, Subáthu, and Dagshai in 1857, 1867, and 1872, though one or other station escaped in each visitation. In 1857, the death-rate among Europeans from cholera was 3·5 per thousand, and in 1867, 4·2 per thousand. The recorded death-rate of Simla for 1870, 1871, 1872, was 11, 8, and 8 per thousand respectively; but no trustworthy statistics exist as to native mortality. Goitre, leprosy, and stone are reported to be prevailing endemic diseases, and syphilis is said to be very common amongst the hill people. The only disease usually contracted by Europeans is that known as hill diarrhœa, a very troublesome form of the ailment. Government maintains three charitable dispensaries—at Simla, Kasauli, and Dagshai. In 1872, they gave relief to a total number of 7258 persons, of whom 327 were in-patients. The Lawrence Military Asylum, established in 1852, stands upon the crest of a hill facing Kasauli, from which it is distant by road 3 miles.

Simla.—*Tahsil* of Simla District, Punjab; consisting of the two detached *pargands* of Simla and Barauli.

Simla.—Municipal town and administrative headquarters of Simla District, Punjab; chief sanatorium and summer capital of British India. Situated on a transverse spur of the Central Himálayan system, in lat. 31° 6' N., and long. 77° 11' E. Mean elevation above sea level, 7084 feet. Distant from Umballa (Ambála) 78 miles; from Kálka, at the foot of the hills, by cart-road, 57 miles. Population in January 1868, 7656; in July 1869, at the beginning of the season, 14,848, of whom 1434 were Europeans and 13,414 natives. It is probable, however, that in August and September the population considerably exceeds this number. A tract of land, including part of the hill now crowned by the station, was retained by the British Government at the close of the Gúrkha war in 1815-16. Lieutenant Ross, Assistant-Political Agent for the Hill States, erected the first residence, a thatched wooden cottage, in 1819. Three years later, his successor,

Lieutenant Kennedy, built a permanent house. Officers from Umballa and neighbouring stations quickly followed the example, and in 1826, the new settlement had acquired a name. A year later, Lord Amherst, the Governor-General, after completing his progress through the North-West, on the conclusion of the successful Bhartpur campaign, spent the summer at Simla. From that date, the sanatorium rose rapidly into favour with the European population of Northern India. Year after year, irregularly at first, but as a matter of course after a few seasons, the seat of Government was transferred for a few weeks in every summer from the heat of Calcutta to the cool climate of the Himálayas. Successive Governors-General resorted with increasing regularity to Simla during the hot weather. Situated in the recently annexed Punjab, it formed an advantageous spot for receiving the great chiefs of Northern and Western India, numbers of whom annually come to Simla to pay their respects to the British Suzerain. It also presented greater conveniences as a starting-point for the Governor-General's cold-weather tour than Calcutta, which is situated in the extreme south-east corner of Bengal. At first only a small staff of officials accompanied the Governor General to Simla; but since the administration of Sir John Lawrence (1864), Simla has practically been the summer capital of the Government of India, with its secretariats and headquarters establishments, unless during exceptional seasons of famine on the plains, as in 1874. Under these circumstances, the station grew with extraordinary rapidity. From 30 houses in 1830, it increased to upwards of 100 in 1841, and 290 in 1866. At present, the bungalows extend over the whole length of a considerable ridge, which runs east and west in a crescent shape, with its concave side pointing southward. The extreme ends of the station lie at a distance of 6 miles from one another. Eastward, the ridge culminates in the peak of Jako, more than 8000 feet in height, and nearly 1000 feet above the average elevation of the station. Woods of *deodair*, oak, and rhododendron clothe its sides, while a tolerably level road, 5 miles long, runs round its base. Another grassy height known as Prospect Hill, of inferior elevation to Jako, and devoid of timber, closes the western extremity of the crescent. The houses cluster thickest upon the southern slopes of Jako, and of two other hills lying near the western end. Peterhoff, the Government House, stands upon one of the latter; while the other is crowned by a large building erected for an observatory, but now used as an ordinary residence. The church stands at the western base of Jako, below which, on the south side of the hill, the native *bázár* cuts off one end of the station from the other. The eastern portion bears the name of Chota Simla, while the most easterly extremity is known as Boileauganj. An outlying northern spur, running at right angles to the main ridge, has acquired the compli-

mentary designation of Elysium. Three and a half miles from the western end, a battery of artillery occupies the detached hill of Jutogh. The exquisite scenery of the neighbourhood has already been described in the article on SIMLA DISTRICT. The public institutions include the Bishop Cotton's School, the Punjab Girls' School, the Mayo Industrial Girls' School, a Roman Catholic convent, and a dispensary. The Government buildings comprise a District court-house and treasury, *tahsil* and police office, post office, telegraph station, and staging bungalow. The commerce of the town consists mainly in the supply of necessaries to the summer visitors and their dependants; but a brisk export trade exists in opium, *charras* (an intoxicating preparation of hemp), fruits, nuts, and shawl-wool, collected from the neighbouring hills, or brought in from beyond the border *viz* Rámpur. Numerous European shops supply the minor wants of visitors, most of them being branches of Calcutta firms. The station has two English banks, a club, and several churches; and two European breweries are situated in the valley below. The great deficiency of Simla lies in its inadequate water supply. The springs are few in number, and several of them run dry during the summer months, when the demand is greatest. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £5281, or 7s. 0½d. per head of population (15,025) within municipal limits.

Simráon.—Ruined town in Champáran District, Bengal; situated partly in Nepál territory, the frontier line passing through the walls. The remains of the fort are in the form of a square, surrounded by an outer wall 14 miles in circumference, and by an inner one of only 10. Inside are scattered the ruins of large buildings. The Isrá tank measures 333 yards along one side, and 210 along the other. The portions of the palaces and temples left standing disclose some finely carved basements, with a superstructure of bricks. Twenty idols have been extricated, many, however, being much mutilated. The citadel is situated to the north, and the palace in the centre of the town; but both only exist as mounds, covered with trees and jungle. Tradition says that Simráon was founded by Nánaupá Deva in 1097 A.D. Six of his dynasty reigned with much splendour, but the last of the line, Hári Sinh Deo, was driven out in 1322 by the Muhammadans.

Simrauta.—*Parganá* in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Haidargarh, on the east by Inhauna, on the south by Rái Bareli, and on the west by Kumhráwán and Hardoi. Area, 97 square miles, of which 44 are under cultivation; pop. (1869), 58,771, namely 56,841 Hindus and 1930 Muhammadans. Government land revenue, £6335, or at the rate of 3s. 6½d. per arable acre. Of the 73 villages comprising the *parganá*, 49 are held under *tálukdári* and 24 under *samindári* tenure. Kanhpuria Kshattriyas are the principal landed proprietors, owning 35 out of the 49 *tálukdári* villages.

Sinawan.—*Tahsil* in Muzaffargarh District, Punjab.—See SAN-AWAN.

Sinchal Pahár.—Long undulating range of hills in Dárljiling District, Bengal. A spur stretches gradually down to the Tista (Teesta), at the top of which, in lat. $26^{\circ} 59' N.$, and long. $88^{\circ} 20' 5'' E.$, and at a height of 8607 feet above the sea level, there are barracks for a European regiment. This hill is the loftiest mountain in the vicinity of Dárljiling station; its peaks are locally known as the Bará and Chhotá Durbín. Their summits are covered with grass, and their sides are clothed with forest trees, bamboos, ferns, and scrub jungle.

Sinchulá.—Hill range in Jalpaiguri District, Bengal; forming the boundary between British territory and Bhután. Its average elevation is from 4000 to a little over 6000 feet, the highest peak, Renigango (lat. $26^{\circ} 47' 30'' N.$, long. $89^{\circ} 37' 15'' E.$), being 6222 feet above sea level. The hills run generally in long even ridges, thickly wooded from base to summit; but at places the summits bristle up into bare crags of from 200 to 300 feet. From Chhotá Sinchulá (5695 feet high) a magnificent view is obtained over the whole of the Baxá Dvár. In the distance are seen large green patches of cultivation in the midst of wide tracts of brown grass and reed jungle, the cultivated spots being dotted with homesteads; in the foreground, near the hills, are dense *sál* and other tree forests, the whole being intersected by numerous rivers and streams. The Sinchulá range can nearly everywhere be ascended by men and by beasts of burden, but not by wheeled vehicles of any description.

Sind.—A Province of British India, included within the PRESIDENCY of BOMBAY, lying between 23° and $28^{\circ} 40' N.$ lat., and between $66^{\circ} 50'$ and $71^{\circ} E.$ long. Area, 56,632 square miles; population in 1872, 2,333,527 souls, including in both cases the Khairpur Native State. The Province of Sind consists of the lower valley and delta of the Indus. It is bounded on the north by Baluchistán or the territories of the Khán of Khelát, the Punjab Province, and Baháwalpur State; on the east by the Native States of Jáisalmir and Jodhpur in Rájputána; on the south by the Rann of Cutch (Kachchh) and the Indian Ocean; and on the west by the territories of the Khán of Khelát. The administrative headquarters are at the city of KARACHI (Kurrachee), but the ancient capital of HAIDARABAD still ranks high amongst the towns of the Province. Sind is divided into the five Districts of KARACHI, HAIDARABAD, THAR AND PARKAR, SHIKARPUR, and UPPER SIND FRONTIER, all of which see separately. I take this opportunity of again acknowledging my obligations, already mentioned in the preface to Volume I., to the *Gazetteer of the Province of Sind*, by A. W. Hughes, of the Bombay Uncovenanted Civil Service. The following account of Sind, and the articles on

